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Author: Commandeur, Susanna

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Facing the phases of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*

Hunting for better TB vaccines

Susanna Commandeur

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SUSANNA COMMANDEUR

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Facing the phases of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*

Hunting for better TB vaccines

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Promotor:

Prof. dr. T.H.M. Ottenhoff

Co-promotor:

Dr. A. Geluk

Overige leden:

Prof. dr. W. Bitter (*Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam*)

Prof. dr. H.M. Dockrell (*London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine*)

Prof. dr. W. van Eden (*Universiteit Utrecht*)

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

***Mycobacterium tuberculosis*; too smart to handle?**

Tuberculosis, a disease of all times

Tuberculosis (TB) is a disease that co-evolved with mankind for many thousands of years [1] and remains responsible for many deaths every year. Approximately 8.7 million new TB cases were identified in 2011 and 1.4 million individuals died of TB in the same year [2]. The first signs of human TB existence can be traced back over 9,000 years ago (7000 B.C.) as shown by DNA and mycolic acid markers detected in human skeletal remains [3]. TB has had many names over time, which refer to consequences of the disease. At the Hippocratic era (460-370 BC) TB was known as consumption or phthisis (Greek for consumption), referring to progressive emaciation or weight loss due to the disease. Later, during the middle ages TB was referred to as the white plague. At this time, TB was accountable for the death of one-fourth of the whole European population and it was even thought that the survival of the European race was at stake [4]. The mechanism and source of the disease remained unknown until the late 19th century. Continuing the work of many researchers who had tried to identify the source of TB, including Jakob Henle, Jean Antoine Villemin and Theodor Klebs, Robert Koch finally identified *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) to be the causative agent and was awarded the Nobel prize in 1905 for his work [5;6]. Unfortunately, despite intense efforts to reduce TB, including improved public health care and therapies [7-9], TB continues to remain one of the leading causes of death due to infectious disease worldwide [2].

***Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection: From latent infection to active disease**

Transmission occurs via inhalation of *Mtb* loaded aerosols that are spread by coughing pulmonary TB patients. The bacilli enter the alveolar space in the lungs where they are taken up by phagocytes including alveolar macrophages, dendritic cells but also pulmonary epithelial cells. *Mtb* is taken up in intracellular compartments called phagosomes. Both neutrophils and monocytes are then attracted to the site of infection, and monocytes subsequently mature into macrophages which are better at taking up and inhibiting *Mtb*. The precise functions of neutrophils remain unclear as they have protective properties at the time of infection but become detrimental at later stages [10-12]. Eventually, the attraction of innate cells to the site of initial infection results in the formation of the primary granuloma (Ghon complex) [13]. Pathogen loaded dendritic cells (DC) subsequently migrate to the mediastinal lymph nodes (MLN), which drain the lungs, where they start presenting antigens to the T and B cells [14;15]. Once the adaptive immune system is triggered, T-effector cells are recruited to the site of infection, where they can exert their function and further shape the granuloma [16].

Intriguingly, this triggering of adaptive immune responses in TB is significantly delayed compared to infections with other pathogens and, in addition, triggered innate and adaptive immune cells often cannot efficiently eliminate *Mtb*. Here, *Mtb* itself plays an important role as the bacilli possess several immune evasion mechanisms which include: inhibition of neutrophil

apoptosis [17], induction of anti-inflammatory responses, such as production of anti-inflammatory cytokines by innate cells and generation of regulatory T cells (Tregs) [18-20], delay in transport of infected, or antigen-loaded DC to the MLN [14;15;21], delay in priming and recruitment of innate and adaptive cells to the site of infection [18;22], preventing phago-lysosome fusion [23-25], detoxification of reactive oxygen species and reactive nitrogen intermediates [26], inhibition of MHC class II presentation [27], and reduced activation of antigen-specific T cells at the site of infection [28;29]. These mechanisms hamper a rapid response of adaptive immune cells, and enable *Mtb* to survive intracellularly [22;30;31]. Remarkably, *Mtb* can also infect bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells (BM-MSC) that reside in the bone marrow and use these cells as a hitherto unknown niche and hideout from immune patrol [32].

At first sight, the formation of granulomas seems to be beneficial for the host since it contains infection locally. However, recent data challenge this dogma and show that *Mtb* also benefits from granuloma formation, since it is able to use freshly recruited cells as novel niches, leading to dissemination [33]. Of special interest, the presence of *Mtb* ESAT-6 protein is required for well-formed granulomas as it triggers recruitment of macrophages via host matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP9) [34;35]. In addition, further spread is enhanced by *Mtb* (ESAT-6) induced necrosis of infected host cells e.g. [36-39] and inhibition of protective apoptosis e.g. [37;38;40;41], although other studies showed that (ESAT-6 induced) apoptosis is beneficial for *Mtb* e.g. [33;42-44], thus the exact effect of host cell death mechanisms on *Mtb* are yet undefined.

Ultimately, the combination of host pressure and *Mtb* immune escape mechanisms can result in an established balance between host and pathogen, i.e. latent *Mtb* infection (LTBI). This balance between pathogen and host enables *Mtb* to reside for decades at the site of infection. LTBI individuals are thus *Mtb* infected but lack any clinical symptoms. However, latent infection can reactivate and lead to active disease: 5 to 10% of LTBI will develop TB during their lifetime and half of these cases will develop within two-five years after infection [45-47]. Nevertheless, reactivation after decades of latent infection has also been described [48]. Of note, these numbers are difficult to interpret partly because it is unknown what percentage of LTBI is able to clear the infection completely. It is believed that *Mtb* in LTBI mostly enters a dormant state, adapting to the harsh environment in the host while awaiting a possible chance to reactivate and spread. Once an imbalance occurs between host and pathogen, due to weakened host immunity, bacteria will be able to reactivate [31] and necrotic regions will develop within the granuloma, leading to caseous necrotic lesions. These lesions can liquefy which ultimately leads to leakage of caseum into the airways, resulting in a contagious TB case [13;16].

A very high risk of TB reactivation is observed in individuals that are immune deficient. These include: (i) HIV infected individuals particularly those with reduced (<200) CD4⁺ T-cell counts [49-51], (ii) individuals undergoing anti-TNF treatment [52;53], and (iii) patients with genetic disorders in genes coding for receptors and cytokines involved in type-1 immunity and the Th1 cascade [54-56]. Thus, *Mtb* infection can result in a broad spectrum of stages, ranging from (likely) complete bacterial clearance to latent infection and reactivation or sometimes acute disease [57].

Efforts to Tackle TB

The timely detection and treatment of TB, and its prevention by vaccination are the two major tasks that the WHO has embraced to reduce the burden of TB. Here we will focus on immunological aspects of these tasks, and discuss immune-based detection techniques as well as vaccination against *Mtb*. Treatment of *Mtb* will not be further discussed in this chapter.

Detection of latent *Mtb* infection

Detection of *Mtb* infection is of major importance for adequate control of TB. *Mtb* infection can be determined in the sputum of active TB patients, using a smear microscopy test and bacterial culturing, or nucleic acid amplification tests to detect *Mtb* DNA (NAATs e.g: Xpert MTB/RIF® assay) complemented with chest X-rays [58;59]. Unfortunately, the presence of viable bacteria cannot be determined in LTBI. To verify *Mtb* exposure in this population an indirect test is required, analyzing the immune responses towards mycobacterial products.

Tuberculin skin test. Koch introduced tuberculin, an extract from tubercle bacilli dissolved in glycerine, as a new medicine to treat tuberculosis, however this unfortunately failed [60]. A few years later, Clemens Freiherr von Pirquet showed that Koch's tuberculin could be used as a tool to identify latent *Mtb* infection, by injecting the substance intracutaneously, which resulted in a delayed hypersensitivity (DTH) response in exposed individuals. Charles Mantoux further developed this diagnostic technique and in 1908, Florence Seibert improved tuberculin to purified protein derivative (PPD), which is still in use today [5;61]. This technique is currently known as the tuberculin skin test (TST) or Mantoux test. Unfortunately, cross-reactivity of PPD with nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) and the vaccine strain *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) reduces the specificity of the TST [62-65]. Exposure to NTMs is very common as they reside in many sources in the host environment such as soil and natural waters [66;67]. One study found NTM to be abundantly present in showerhead biofilms [68]. A practical drawback of the TST is that it requires two visits, can induce boosting effects upon multiple TST testing and can be false negative in immunocompromised (e.g. HIV infected) individuals.

Interferon-Gamma Release Assays (IGRAs). To increase the specificity of *Mtb* diagnosis, a new technique was introduced. This technique is based on antigen specific interferon-gamma (IFN- γ) secretion upon stimulation with peptides from the highly specific and immunogenic *Mtb* antigens early-secreted antigen 6 (ESAT-6), culture filtrate protein 10 (CFP-10) and TB7.7. These tests are widely known as Interferon-Gamma Release Assays (IGRAs). In contrast to the TST, false negative responses due to *Mtb* specific anergy can be identified since both a positive and negative control are included [69]. Multiple studies have shown that IGRAs have enhanced specificity over TST [70-72], although most of these studies were performed in high-income countries such that the results cannot directly be extrapolated to low and middle income countries with higher TB incidences [73;74]. Indeed, IGRAs proved to be less powerful in high TB incidence countries

[75;76]. Due to the lack of sufficient evidence IGRAs are not recommended for use in low and middle income countries [74]. Furthermore, discordant results between TST and IGRA results have been documented which often remain poorly explained [77]. Despite the relative success of IGRAs in low endemic settings, it has not proved possible to use these tests to discriminate between recent and remote *Mtb* infection, and also not between active and latent *Mtb* infection. Recently an *Mtb* antigen, Rv2628, was described to be recognized by remote *Mtb* infected individuals, but not by recent *Mtb* infected individuals, suggesting a role as discriminatory marker [78]. Although the specificity is increased, the IGRA antigens are not fully restricted to *Mtb* as homologs of these proteins are also present in *Mycobacterium leprae* [79;80] *Mycobacterium kansasii*, *Mycobacterium szulgai*, *Mycobacterium riyadhense* and *Mycobacterium marinum*. Also, testing too soon after *Mtb* infection might result in false negative outcomes [81].

Importantly, as already indicated, these two tests determine *Mtb* exposure indirectly. Responses towards *Mtb* products can be detected, but this does not directly indicate that viable bacilli are still present. It may be that either the infection has been cleared but immune responses persist, or that *Mtb* bacilli are still present. Altogether, although latent *Mtb* infection detection methods are available, improvement is definitely required.

Vaccine development

Despite the availability of diagnostic tests and TB treatments, TB remains difficult to eradicate. One major concern is the rapid development of (extensively) multidrug resistant (XDR/MDR) *Mtb* strains. At this moment even strains are known which are resistant to all current drugs available (totally drug resistant *Mtb*, TDR) [82]. Therefore, robust *Mtb* vaccines are needed to prevent further development of TB outbreaks that cannot be controlled using current drugs.

Current TB vaccine. In 1921, Albert Calmette and Camille Guérin developed the first vaccine against TB. They cultured *Mycobacterium bovis* (*M. bovis*) until it became avirulent (due to the loss of genetic regions, including RD1[83]) and designated the vaccine as *M. bovis* Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) [5;84]. BCG is still the only vaccine available at this moment. The effect of BCG has widely been studied in many countries and showed its protective value towards disseminated and meningeal childhood TB [85] as well as to a certain level against leprosy, which is caused by *Mycobacterium leprae* [86;87]. Unfortunately, BCG vaccination results in highly variable protection against pulmonary TB in adults [88], which is the most common form of TB. Importantly, pulmonary TB is, together with the rare laryngeal TB, the only form of TB accountable for further transmission of disease. The effect of BCG can be diminished due to co-infections with NTM or helminthes [89-91]. In addition to the highly variable protection, BCG vaccination, which is a live attenuated vaccine, can lead to severe infection in immune deficient individuals [92] [54]. The lack of BCG's efficacy against pulmonary TB and its severe adverse effects in immune deficiencies clearly show that there is a significant need for improved TB vaccines which are both safer and more effective than BCG.

Novel TB vaccines. *Mtb* vaccines need to trigger cellular immunity to induce protection against *Mtb* as the bacterium resides intracellular in phagosomes such that antibodies cannot easily reach the pathogen. Importantly, Th1 immunity was previously shown to play an important role in the control of *Mtb* infection [16]. New preventive TB vaccines can either be used as booster vaccines on top of previous BCG vaccination, or as individual, priming vaccines. The three different types of vaccines currently under study are (i) live attenuated and/or genetically modified mycobacterial vaccines, (ii) killed (fragmented) whole bacteria and (iii) subunit vaccines. Notably, the development of therapeutic vaccines is of significant interest. The goal of this vaccine is to prevent reactivation of *Mtb* in LTBI by enhancing the control of infection. At this moment, over 12 vaccines already entered clinical trials, whereas over 40 vaccines are currently in the pre-clinical phase [16].

The live attenuated and/or genetically modified mycobacteria are developed to be used as priming vaccines, meant to replace BCG. These improved vaccines should be more immunogenic, maintain this immune response for a longer period of time and be safer in immune-deficient individuals. Recombinant BCG (rBCG) modifications include i) introduction or over-expression of specific *Mtb* antigens which are lacking from BCG, and ii) improvement of antigen presentation by genetic modification of important pathways [16]. One of these rBCG vaccines is rBCGΔUrec:Hly⁺ (VPM1002). rBCGΔUrec:Hly⁺ expresses listeriolysin (Hly) which is responsible for rBCGs escape from phagosomes into the cytosol. Urease C (UreC), a protein involved in preventing phagosomal acidification, was removed to improve the effect of Hly, which functions most optimal under acidic conditions. This rBCG had a better vaccine potential compared to its parental strain [93]. Apoptosis of infected cells was promoted and increased CD4⁺ as well as CD8⁺ T-cell responses was observed, possibly due to enhanced cross priming. The vaccine has entered phase IIa trials [94]. Other rBCG vaccines include strains that overexpress antigens such as Ag85B (rBCG30) [95] and RD1 antigens [96]. Aeras-422, a vaccine that resembles rBCGΔUrec:Hly⁺, expresses perforingolysin, but also overexpresses Ag85A, Ag85B and Rv3407 [97]. The combination of induced escape into the cytosol and overexpression of immunogenic antigens in one vaccine appears to have an improved efficacy. However this vaccine induced side effects such as the occurrence of shingles urging termination of the phase I trial [16;98;99].

Using *Mtb* strains for vaccine purposes requires special attention, it is important that attenuated strains are not virulent and therefore at least two independent loci, e.g. involved in essential metabolic pathways (autotrophy) or virulence, should be deleted, preventing reversion of virulence [100;101]. Currently several attenuated *Mtb* strains are under study as potential vaccines. The attenuated *Mtb* ΔsecA2ΔlysA [102] and *Mtb* ΔfbpAΔsapM [103] are examples of such mutant strains and are in a very early stage of analysis. Two other attenuated *Mtb* strains, *Mtb* ΔRD1ΔpanCD [104] and *Mtb* ΔPhoP (SO2), have already been studied for some time, showing promising immunogenicity and safety results. In order to comply to a consensus reached at a WHO Geneva meeting in 2004 [100;101;105], the SO2 strain has been further improved by deletion of the FadD26 gene, generating *Mtb* ΔPhoPΔfad or MTBVAC. The MTBVAC vaccine

has now entered phase I clinical trial to analyze its safety in humans. Interestingly, a novel potential vaccine strain was developed consisting of an attenuated *Mtb* strain expressing HIV antigens to prevent both *Mtb* and HIV infections [106].

In contrast to live attenuated and/or genetically modified mycobacteria vaccines, non-live subunit vaccines were initially developed to be used as booster on top of BCG vaccination or to enable novel live attenuated and/or genetically modified mycobacterial vaccines to enhance the long-lived immune memory response against *Mtb*. Subunit vaccines consist of protein(s) and/or (poly)epitopes delivered using a viral vector system or as recombinant product together with an (Th1) adjuvant [16;107]. One of the most advanced subunit vaccine is MVA85A, a recombinant (replication deficient) strain of Modified Vaccinia Ankara (MVA) virus that expresses the *Mtb* Ag85A antigen. MVA85A was shown to be immunogenic and safe in use in children and adults located at multiple sites [108-111]. Unfortunately, although MVA85A was safe, the phase IIb trial, published in February 2013, resulted in insignificant efficacy against TB and *Mtb* infection in children [112]. Another vaccine, AdAg85A which is currently studied in phase I trial, resembles MVA85A in that it also expresses Ag85A but expressed in an (replication deficient) Adenovirus (type 5) [113;114]. Ad35 (AERAS-402) is a virus-based vaccine expressing both *Mtb* Ag85A, Ag85B and TB10.4 as a fusion protein using a replication deficient Adenovirus (type 35) vector. Again, this vaccine also showed strong immunogenic potential in BCG primed individuals and also at different test sites [115;116]. This Ad35 based vaccine is currently in a phase IIb trial [117]. Importantly, some concerns have been raised over the use of adenovirus as vaccine vectors including the existence of neutralizing host antibodies that can influence the functioning of the vaccine, which can be avoided by using other viral vectors [118-120].

Also different subunit vaccines consisting of protein and adjuvants are currently studied. M72/AS01, consisting of Rv1196 (PPE18) and Rv0125 (serine protease, pepA) just finished phase IIa trial testing and showed to be safe and immunogenic [121;122]. Hybrid 1 (H1) (Ag85B and ESAT-6 fusion protein) administered using IC31 as adjuvant induced strong immunity in healthy donors and mycobacteria exposed individuals [123;124]. HyVac4 (or H4, consisting of Ag85B and TB10.4 fusion protein) shows immunogenic and protective effects in various animal models, and has now entered clinical trials as H4 administered together with IC31 [125]. Of note, H4 was developed to avoid H1 vaccine induction of ESAT-6 responses which interferes with IGRA outcome. Other potential subunit vaccines, including H56 (H1 backbone including Rv2660) [126] are still in pre-clinical phase e.g.: [127;128]. Instead of proteins, immunogenic epitopes can be combined to form a polyepitope and this also shows vaccine potential [107]. These vaccines can be used in heterologous prime-boost settings, thus combining live or attenuated vaccines with subunit vaccines to induce optimal protection.

Early secreted antigens such as ESAT-6 and Ag85 are often selected for TB subunit vaccines, based on expression in active replicating *Mtb*, secretion and strong (*in vitro*) immunogenicity [129]. Previous studies showed a protective effect of *Mtb* short culture filtrate which contained

both ESAT-6 and Ag85B [130]. Nonetheless, the antigens chosen for vaccination should also be significantly expressed by *Mtb* during *in vivo* infection, preferably over extended periods of time, preferably in different phases of *Mtb* infection and in both resistant and susceptible host backgrounds, such that the vaccine would induce T cells that directly recognize infected cells. This will be discussed in the next section.

Knowing *Mtb*'s lifestyle

Phases of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*

As already indicated, after infection *Mtb* is able to reside for decades inside the host without causing any clinical symptoms. To accomplish this, *Mtb* has to evade host induced pressures such as nutrient and oxygen shortage, acidic environment, toxic products produced by host cells and immune pressure. Influenced by these factors, *Mtb* encounters a dormant state which is characterized by: lipid body loaded, (phenotypic) drug-resistant, non-replicating bacteria with low metabolic activity (dormant bacteria) [131;132]. The granuloma will function to contain the infection [31]. Most probably both active replicating and dormant bacteria will be present during infection [133], but only dormant bacteria are tolerant to drugs and therefore difficult to eliminate by antibiotic treatment [16]. For improved diagnosis of latent *Mtb* infection and for optimal (therapeutic) vaccine development, a better understanding of *Mtb*'s lifecycle is of critical importance, particularly better insights in how *Mtb* adapts to *in vivo* environment upon infection. The change of *Mtb*'s genetic and proteomic makeup could have major impact on what antigens can be used as vaccine candidates.

In the beginning of the 21st century, *in vitro* *Mtb* culture studies captured the first differences in *Mtb*'s transcriptomics response by comparing bacteria cultured under different stress conditions [134-136]. These studies focused on stress factors that *Mtb* is thought to encounter upon infection, including hypoxia, low pH, nutrient deprivation and free radicals. Oxygen tension is an important factor in the activation state of *Mtb* as the bacteria prefer to inhabit aerated parts of the host. [137]. Though, the transcriptional analysis showed that *Mtb* is able to adapt to oxygen depletion, to nitric oxide and to carbon monoxide [138-142], environmental conditions which are thought to occur within host cells and granulomas. Importantly, hypoxic regions were identified at the infection site *in vivo* [143]. Particularly interesting was the upregulation of a cluster of 48 genes, known as the dormancy regulon (DosR), which is controlled by regulator *Rv3133c* (DosR or DevR) [144;145]. Interestingly, a second set of genes is expressed at a later stage of hypoxia, known as the enduring hypoxic response (EHR). This set includes ~230 genes (including several DosR genes), which are upregulated considerably longer than most of the genes expressed by the DosR regulon [146].

Starvation conditions also trigger differential *Mtb* gene expression [140;147]. Here, *Mtb* has to compete for nutrients or adapt to the lack of nutrients and has to switch to the use of different

carbon sources for energy [148]. Interestingly, a substantial number of EHR genes overlap with genes associated with the starvation response [146]. Indeed, *In vivo*, *Mtb* will be exposed to multiple stress conditions at once. Dormancy was further simulated by Deb *et al.* [149] who cultured *Mtb* at low oxygen, high CO₂, acidic pH and low nutrient conditions. This resulted in dormant *Mtb* that had lost acid-fastness, contained lipid inclusion bodies and had become drug tolerant. Interestingly, genes encoding enzymes involved in the glyoxylate shunt were significantly expressed by *Mtb* cultured under multiple stress conditions. This cycle plays an essential role in the use of fatty acids as carbon source, and is essential for *Mtb*'s survival *in vivo* [150]. Thus, this study verified the role of the glyoxylate shunt in stress conditions that *Mtb* may encounter *in vivo* [148;151;152]. All studies described here, however, mimicked the host environment in *in vitro* systems, but it would be more informative and relevant to directly analyze *Mtb*'s responses *in vivo* in infected lung tissue. Several studies were performed to analyze *Mtb* transcripts *in vivo* (reviewed by Waddell *et al.* [153]), however, no animal models exist that fully resemble human TB disease, although some models show several specific TB phenotypes such as hypoxia [143] and lesion/granuloma formation [154;155]. Intriguingly, multiple studies show a role for lipid metabolism in *in vivo* survival of *Mtb* [149;156;157].

Thus *Mtb* is able to adapt to host environmental conditions and appears to express particular sets of genes in each condition, with some overlap in genes expressed between the different conditions identified and investigated. The proteins encoded by these sets of genes can be considered to be expressed in an *Mtb* infection phase related way, and thus may be of considerable interest as novel subunit vaccine candidates [16;158]. They may have an additional or even superior effect compared to antigens that are early secreted only. Indeed, the expression of *Mtb* proteins *in vivo* is of substantial significance as one study showed that upon *Mtb* infection the expression of Ag85B decreased, resulting in reduced activation of Ag85B specific T cells [29]. Thus Ag85B based vaccines might induce limited protection due to the loss of *Mtb* Ag85B expression in chronic phase infection. This might also be an explanation for the low efficacy induced by MVA85A [112]. The phase related antigens can therefore also be of use in therapeutic vaccines. A few novel *Mtb* phase related antigens are currently incorporated into TB vaccines. H56 contains next to ESAT-6 and Ag85B, also Rv2660, encoded by *Rv2660*, a gene highly expressed during starvation [126]. Furthermore, a polypeptide (consisting of immunogenic epitopes from Hsp65, Ag85B, 19Kda lipoprotein, HspX and Rv1733c) contains latency antigens HspX and Rv1733c [107]. Both studies revealed protective value of the vaccines. Lastly, the protective value of resuscitation promoting factor (Rpf) antigens as subunit vaccines was studied [159]. Rpf's are a set of genes encoding proteins suggested to be involved in reactivation or resuscitation of dormant bacteria. Five Rpf's are known in *Mtb*: *RpfA-E* (*Rv0867c*, *Rv1009*, *Rv1884c*, *Rv2389c* and *Rv2450c*). The proteins encoded by these genes resemble the Rpf protein encoded by *Micrococcus luteus*, which is expressed and secreted by actively replicating *M. luteus* bacteria. This protein showed to be able to resuscitate dormant *M. luteus*, but also stimulated the growth of mycobacteria [160]. Importantly,

the *Mtb* specific Rpf's also had a stimulating effect on the growth of *M. luteus* and mycobacteria [161].

Thus understanding *Mtb*'s lifestyle opens doors to novel vaccine candidates that can be of value for both prophylactic and therapeutic vaccination strategies.

Understanding TB immunity

Besides the aforementioned stress conditions, immune pressure is also a hurdle *Mtb* has to encounter. Understanding this is essential for future development of novel TB vaccines. Vaccine induced humoral immunity is a well-known correlate of protection for many viral vaccines such as hepatitis and influenza [162]. However, cell mediated immunity (CMI) is essential in protection against *Mtb* infection. Although the role of B cells in TB immunity should not be neglected [163], *Mtb* primarily resides in phagosomes which results in processing and presenting of *Mtb* antigens via the MHC class II route.

As previously mentioned, genetic defects in IFN- γ and IL-12 pathways, cytokines specific for Th1 differentiation, as well as depletion of CD4⁺ T cells showed an increased risk of tuberculosis [49-51;56], confirming that Th1 cells play an important role in TB protection. Analyzing Th1 immunity is currently the most common approach to study TB vaccine potential [164]. Furthermore, IGRAs are also based on Th1 T cell analysis as antigen-specific IFN- γ production is measured. An important role for IFN- γ in *Mtb* control is activation of macrophages. Besides IFN- γ , other Th1 cytokines are of importance in protection against TB. As mentioned above, patients receiving anti-TNF therapy as treatment against different inflammatory diseases such as psoriasis and rheumatoid arthritis, have a higher risk of developing TB [52;53;165;166], indicating the need of TNF- α in protection against TB. Both IFN- γ and TNF- α activate APC antimicrobial effector mechanisms. Although we now know that Th1 immunity is of particular importance, exact insights in TB immune regulation remain limited. In contrast to Th1 cells, Th2 cells are generally thought not to have protective value in TB infection, and helminth-induced Th2 responses can have a detrimental effect on protection against TB [90] and BCG vaccination efficacy. Interestingly, a recent mouse model showed that CD4⁺ T cells can exert protective functions even in the absence of IFN- γ and/or TNF- α [167], indicating that other factors may play an important role in protection as well. Indeed, functional, IFN- γ deficient, CD4⁺ T cells still contribute to initial *Mtb* control [168], however, IFN- γ producing CD4⁺ T cells are required for long-term control [168].

The study of novel T-cell subsets could shed further light upon the continued (though suboptimal) protection in the absence of IFN- γ and/or TNF- α . Multiparameter flowcytometric analysis has enabled detection of multiple markers on immune cells. Such analysis allows detection of multiple T-cell subsets that might play a role in infection and vaccination induced immunity. Recent new subsets include Th17 and regulatory T cells [169]. Human IL-1 β /IL-6/IL-23 induced CD4⁺ Th17 cells produce different cytokines and chemokines including IL-17, IL-22, CCL-20 but

also IFN- γ production has been described [169-172]. Vaccine induced Th17 cells were involved in TB protection in mice [173]. Specifically, IL-17 plays a role in maturation of granuloma formation [174]. Conversely, Th17 cells can be damaging as repeated antigen exposure results in IL-17-dependent lung pathology and enhanced neutrophil influx [175]. Thus, the net effect of Th17 cells on TB protection remains unclear. Regulatory T cells (Tregs) are also induced upon *Mtb* infection and are responsible for delayed priming of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in the MLN [18] and direct suppression of effector T cell activity [176], thus having an anti-inflammatory effect. Therefore, they can be involved in bacterial persistence, next to limitation of host tissue damage [177]. Interestingly, differentiation of Th17 to Th1 and Treg to Th17 T cell subsets have been detected and indicate plasticity of unstable T-cell subsets [172;178;179].

Importantly, *Mtb* not only resides in the phagosome, but can also translocate to the cytosol, a mechanism which is RD1 region dependent [180;181]. Translocation of mycobacterial products to the cytosol enables loading of immunogenic epitopes to MHC class I and presentation to CD8⁺ T cells, although many other mechanisms might also be involved in MHC-I loading such as cross-presentation and efferocytosis [40;182;183]. CD8⁺ T cells produce multiple cytokines upon activation but can exert direct cytotoxic functions as well [31]. In addition to CD4⁺ T cells, CD8⁺ T cells also contribute to TB protection [184-186].

The current belief is that T cells producing multiple cytokines, chemokines and/or effector molecules are more effective compared to single cytokine producing cells. In more detail, T cells producing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 are believed to be of higher quality compared to double or single cytokine producing Th1 T cells and provide optimal protection and effector function [187]. In this study, polyfunctional T cells expressing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 correlated with protection against the intracellular pathogen *Leishmania major*. Subsequently, this was confirmed in mouse TB vaccine studies [188-190]. Also, higher frequencies of polyfunctional T cells were observed in LTBI compared to TB patients [191], based on mycobacterial load [192]. However, polyfunctional T cells correlated also to active TB disease [193;194]. In addition, several other studies showed no correlation of these cells with vaccination induced protection [195;196]. Interestingly, the antigen dose may be of importance for the development of protective polyfunctional T cells [197]. Furthermore, the duration of antigen stimulation and cytokine accumulation (due to Golgi transport inhibition) also influences the detection of polyfunctional T cells [198]. Thus, overall, the role of polyfunctional T cells in TB remains unclear.

Outline of this thesis

Efforts to decrease the number of TB cases by using latest *Mtb* detection methods, treatments and BCG vaccination campaigns have failed to result in eradication of the disease. TB remains one of the leading causes of death on our planet. The main focus of this thesis is to identify *Mtb* infection phase related antigens, and to evaluate these as potential antigens for TB vaccines.

Mtb Rpf proteins are likely involved in reactivation of dormant mycobacteria, and thus may play an important role in TB disease. We therefore hypothesized that immunity directed against Rpf proteins could play a role in the control of reactivating bacteria. In **chapter 2** T-cell responses towards two *Mtb* resuscitation promoting factors (Rpfs), Rv0867c (RpfA) and Rv2389c (RpfD), are described in mycobacterium exposed individuals.

A second group of *Mtb* antigens, DosR antigens, previously was shown to be preferentially recognized by LTBI. From this perspective, we hypothesized that enhancing DosR specific immunity may be beneficial in controlling LTBI. However, only very few data on the *Mtb* DosR regulon encoded antigen-specific T-cell responses were available. We therefore analyzed the precise *Mtb* DosR antigen responding T cells and determined immunogenic peptide epitopes (**chapter 3**).

The thus far described phase related antigens are all selected from initial *in vitro* studies which tried to mimic environmental stress conditions that *Mtb* encounters upon infection. We hypothesized that *Mtb* vaccine candidates should be expressed by *Mtb in vivo*, in infected tissue, and therefore analyzed *Mtb* gene expression profiles in the lungs of four genetically related but distinct mouse strains that represents a spectrum of TB susceptibility controlled by the *super-susceptibility to TB 1* locus. The immunogenicity of a subset of *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) antigens, associated to *Mtb* infection phenotypes, was subsequently determined (**chapter 4**).

Besides the criterion that vaccine candidates should be expressed *in vivo*, they should also be immunogenic *in vivo* and provide protection against *Mtb* infection. To determine the immunogenic and protective value of one of the IVE-TB antigens, Rv2034, HLA transgenic mice were vaccinated with Rv2034 as an experimental TB vaccine as described in **chapter 5**.

Studying the Rv2034 specific T-cell responses in more detail, we used a specific CD154 T-cell cloning method that allows more detailed analysis of these responses and in addition the development of novel tools to dissect the precise nature of the IVE-TB specific T-cell response (**chapter 6**).

The results of all studies included in this thesis are summarized and discussed in **chapter 7**.

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CHAPTER 2

Identification of human T-cell responses to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* resuscitation-promoting factors in long-term latently infected individuals

Susanna Commandeur^{1,*}, Krista E. van Meijgaarden^{1,*}, May Young Lin¹, Kees L. M. C. Franken¹,
Annemieke H. Friggen¹, Jan Wouter Drijfhout², Fredrik Oftung³, Gro Ellen Korsvold³,
Annemieke Geluk¹ and Tom H. M. Ottenhoff¹

¹ *Department of Infectious Diseases, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands;* ² *Department of Immunohematology and Blood Transfusion, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands;*

³ *Department of Bacteriology and Immunology, Division of Infectious Disease Control, Norwegian Institute of Public Health, Oslo, Norway*

*These authors contributed equally to this study

Abstract

The *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG vaccine is the only tuberculosis (TB) vaccine available, yet it provides limited protection against pulmonary TB in adults and fails to protect against TB reactivation. We hypothesized that immunity against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) “resuscitation-promoting factors” (Rpf), which are small bacterial proteins that promote proliferation of dormant mycobacteria, may be relevant in the human immune response to *Mtb*. In previous unpublished work, we found that Rpf Rv0867c and Rv2389c induced interferon gamma (IFN- γ) production in the blood of TB patients’ healthy household contacts in several different African populations. Here we examine these two dominant Rpf antigens in more detail and define the nature of the responding T-cell subsets. Multiparameter cytokine profiling showed that Rv2389c and, to a lesser extent, Rv0867c were recognized by mycobacterium-responsive healthy Dutch individuals; peptide-scanning revealed several epitopes, including a single immunodominant epitope in Rv2389c. Rv0867c and, to a lesser extent, Rv2389c Rpf-specific T-cell responses were maintained for decades in long-term *Mtb* non-progressors. Prominent Rv0867c-specific double- and single-cytokine-producing CD8⁺ T-cell subset responses were found, including a large population of CD8⁺ effector memory and effector T-cell subsets. We conclude that *Mtb* Rpf antigens are important targets in the human immune response to *Mtb*, and represent interesting TB vaccine candidate antigens.

Introduction

It is estimated that over 2 billion people are latently infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) and that 5 to 10% of these individuals will develop active tuberculosis (TB) at one point in their lifetime whereas the remainder are able to contain infection long term without developing clinical symptoms [1]. During latency, the bacteria are thought to be in a dormant or slowly replicating state [2]. The vast reservoir of individuals with latent infection is a major source of new TB cases due to reactivation and resuscitation of dormant bacilli [3;4].

The term “dormancy” was first introduced by Joseph Warwick Bigger, who discovered that a culture of *Staphylococcus pyogenes* could not be sterilized after penicillin treatment since there was a small group of antibiotic-resistant bacteria that could be re-grown from such cultures. Bigger proposed that these bacteria were dormant, nonreplicating, and thus insensitive to antimicrobials targeting bacterial metabolic pathways [5].

It is assumed that environmental factors are involved in inducing bacterial dormancy [6]. *Mtb* enters a state of nonreplicating or slowly replicating persistence when grown under gradual oxygen depletion, which is thought to be one of the stress factors that *Mtb* encounters upon infection [7]. Not only oxygen deprivation, but also low pH, NO, nutrient deprivation and host immune pressure are stress factors *Mtb* is subjected to in the lung granulomatous lesions. In response to these stress factors, *Mtb* decreases its metabolic activity and alters its gene expression pattern [6;8;9]. This adaptation results in increased resistance to environmental stress, by means of entering the nonreplicating or slowly replicating persisting state [10].

While several studies have addressed bacterial transition from the replicating to the nonreplicating, slowly replicating or dormant state, little is known regarding the cues that induce bacteria to reactivate and resume growth from dormancy. Mukamolova *et al.* were the first to discover a resuscitation promoting factor (Rpf), a hormone-like protein secreted by *Micrococcus luteus* (*M. luteus*). Addition of this Rpf protein to dormant *M. luteus* resulted in resuscitation of *M. luteus* bacteria [11;12]. *Rpf* genes were then found to be conserved throughout high-G+C Gram-positive bacteria, including *Mtb*. Five such genes were identified in the *Mtb* genome, notably *Rv0867c* (*rpfA*), *Rv1009* (*rpfB*), *Rv1884c* (*rpfC*), *Rv2389c* (*rpfD*) and *Rv2450c* (*rpfE*). Each *Mtb* Rpf protein contains an ~70 amino-acid rpf-like domain similar to the *M. luteus* *rpf*-encoded protein [13]. *Mtb* Rpfs showed similar properties to *M. luteus* Rpf, including their ability to resuscitate dormant mycobacteria [13;14]. *Mtb* Rpf protein expression was observed *in vitro* in actively growing *Mtb* and in *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG). Importantly, *Mtb* *rpf* gene expression was detected in infected murine and human tissue. Moreover, the presence of Rpf-like proteins was shown in *Mtb*-infected human tissue [13;15-17]. Recently, *rpf* gene expression was analyzed in *Mtb* cells grown under different physiological stress conditions and growth factors. All five *rpf* genes were expressed during actively replicating early log-phase growth of *Mtb*, confirming previous findings. Of note, *Mtb* *rpf* genes displayed differential expression patterns when analyzed

in cultures grown under hypoxia, nutrient starvation and acidic conditions and stationary-, nonculturable-, and resuscitation-phase-like conditions. These differential adaptive *rpf* expression profiles indicate that *Mtb* Rpf s likely play different roles [4].

While *M. luteus* Rpf is essential for *M. luteus* growth, individual *Mtb* Rpf s were found to be redundant for growth *in vitro* and *in vivo* in single-gene-knockout mutants [17;18]. However, when multiple *rpj* deletions were introduced simultaneously in *Mtb* ($\Delta Rv0867c/\Delta Rv1009/\Delta Rv1884c$ and $\Delta Rv0867c/\Delta Rv1009/\Delta Rv2389c$), a significant loss in the ability of *Mtb* to resuscitate was found, accompanied by *in vitro* growth attenuation [19].

BCG vaccination is widely used and affords protection from severe forms of TB in children, but it provides only limited and highly variable protection against pulmonary TB in adults and does not protect against reactivation. Better TB vaccines are clearly needed [20]. As the *Mtb* Rpf proteins are associated with resuscitation of mycobacteria, we hypothesized that immunity directed against these proteins may play a role in sensing actively replicating *Mtb* organisms and possibly play a role in host immune control of reactivating bacteria. Only two reports have investigated the immunogenicity of the *Mtb* Rpf antigens. One study with mice showed that Rv0867c, Rv1009, Rv2389c and Rv2450c were immunogenic [21]. Recently we identified the first human *Mtb* Rpf-specific T-cell responses against a subset of the five *Mtb* Rpf s in a larger antigen T-cell screening [22]. Interferon gamma (IFN- γ) production was detected in tuberculin skin test (TST)-positive individuals in response to Rv1009, Rv1884c and Rv2450c and, to a lesser extent, to Rv0867c, whereas limited to no IFN- γ was found in TST-negative individuals. Rv2389c, however, was not included in this study [22].

These two studies indicate a possible role for T-cell responses in detecting *Mtb* Rpf antigen during *Mtb* infection. We have, therefore, performed a more detailed analysis studying the immunogenicity of the Rv0867c and Rv2389c *Mtb* Rpf proteins in several groups of mycobacteria-exposed individuals, including long-term non-progressors. These two antigens were selected based on highest recognition of all 5 rpf s in a cross-sectional cohort study of HIV-negative, TST- and/or ESAT6/CFP10-positive household contacts from the Gambia, Uganda, and South Africa (BMGF GCGH GC6#74 Biomarkers for TB consortium; <http://www.biomarkers-for-tb.net/>; unpublished results). Of interest, both Rv0867c and Rv2389c are predicted to be secreted proteins (SignalP and TMMHM server Technical University of Denmark) [23], which may enhance availability of the antigen to the innate immune system. Indeed, Rv0867c protein is present in *Mtb* culture filtrate [24]. *Rv0867c* and *Rv2389c* are both expressed in early log-phase-grown *Mtb*, but *Rv2389c* expression is induced in stationary and noncultivable phases of *Mtb* and during acidic conditions, whereas *Rv0867c* expression appears to be higher in nutrient-starved *Mtb* culture. Both genes are also highly induced during early resuscitation [4]. In the work reported here, we (i) identify frequent and significant human T-cell responses against Rv0867c and Rv2389c; (ii) identify a series of novel *Mtb* rpf epitopes, including a single dominant peptide epitope in Rv2389c; and (iii) describe *Mtb* rpf-specific polyfunctional memory CD4⁺ and particularly CD8⁺

T-cell memory responses to Rv0867c and Rv2389c *Mtb* rpf proteins in long-term naturally protected, *Mtb* nonprogressors. Based on these data, we propose that rpf antigens are potentially interesting new TB vaccine candidates.

Materials and methods

Study subjects. Blood samples were collected by venipuncture from a group of Dutch individuals including 9 tuberculosis (TB) patients, 10 tuberculin skin test (TST)-positive individuals (indurations of ≥ 10 mm), 10 BCG-vaccinated individuals and 10 non-BCG-vaccinated, TST-negative, healthy individuals, as well as 12 Norwegian TST-positive individuals. The Norwegian donor group consisted of elderly people (average 70 years) exposed to TB transmission several decades ago without developing any clinical disease and without receiving any treatment. Previously recorded TST indurations associated with natural conversion ranged from 12 to 60 mm (average 18 mm). Recent Interferon gamma (IFN- γ) release assay (IGRA) testing with the Quantiferon Gold in-tube test showed that 9 of 12 donors in this category were positive. All donors gave written consent before blood donation. The study protocol (P207/99) was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Leiden University Medical Center and the Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics in Norway. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from heparinized venous blood by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation and stored in liquid nitrogen until further use.

Recombinant proteins. Recombinant proteins were produced as previously described [25]. Briefly, *Mtb* genes were amplified by PCR from genomic H37Rv DNA and cloned by Gateway technology (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) in a bacterial expression vector containing a histidine tag at the N-terminus. Vectors were over-expressed in *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3) and purified. The size and purity of recombinant proteins were analyzed by gel electrophoresis and Western blotting with an anti-His antibody (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and an anti-*E. coli* polyclonal antibody (a kind gift from the Statens Serum Institute (SSI)). Endotoxin contents were below 50 IU/mg recombinant protein, as tested using a Limulus Amebocyte Lysate (LAL) assay (Cambrex, East Rutherford, NJ). All proteins were tested in lymphocyte stimulation assays in order to exclude antigen-nonspecific T-cell stimulation and cellular toxicity by using PBMCs of *in vitro* purified protein derivative (PPD)-negative healthy Dutch donors [26]. PPD of *M. tuberculosis* was purchased from SSI, Copenhagen, Denmark.

Synthetic peptides. Peptides (20-mers overlapping 10 amino acids) were produced at the Leiden University Medical Center (LUMC) facility by simultaneous multiple-peptide synthesis as described previously [27]. Homogeneity and purity were confirmed by analytical reversed-phase high-pressure liquid chromatography, and mass spectrometry showed the expected masses. Peptide purity was $\geq 75\%$.

Lymphocyte stimulation assay. PBMCs (1.5×10^5 /well) were cultured in triplicate in 96-wells round-bottom plates (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) and incubated with or without protein (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) in AIM-V medium (Invitrogen, Breda, The Netherlands) at 37°C , 5% CO_2 . After 6 days supernatants were harvested and used for cytokine and chemokine profiling.

Cytokine and chemokine profiling. Levels of cytokines (IFN- γ , interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), interleukin-6 (IL-6) and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α)) were analyzed using the Lincoplex[®] kit (Millipore) according to the Milliplex[™] Map protocol. Plates were analyzed using a BioPlex array reader with Bio-Plex software (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Veenendaal, The Netherlands).

Generation of antigen-specific T-cell lines. T-cell lines were generated as previously described [28]. PBMCs (2×10^6 cells/well) from cured TB patients or TST-positive or BCG-vaccinated individuals were cultured in 24-well plates in the presence of protein (2 to 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) in IMDM medium (Gibco, Paisley, UK) supplemented with 50 U/ml penicillin, 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ streptomycin (Gibco, Paisley, UK) and 10% pooled human serum at 37°C , 5% CO_2 . At day 6, recombinant-interleukin-2 (rIL-2) (Cetus, Emeryville, CA, USA) was added to the cell cultures in a final concentration of 25 U/ml. Cultures were maintained for an additional 2 to 3 weeks in the presence of rIL-2. T cells were harvested and stored in liquid nitrogen until further use.

T-cell proliferation of antigen-specific T-cell lines. Thawed T-cell lines were cultured in triplicate in 96-wells flat-bottom plates (1.5×10^4 /well) together with HLA-DR-matched irradiated (2000 rad) PBMCs (5×10^4 /well) with or without protein (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) or peptide (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) at 37°C 5% CO_2 . After 3 days, supernatants were harvested and stored at -20°C . Cells were pulsed for an additional 18 hours with [^3H]thymidine (0.5 $\mu\text{Ci}/\text{well}$), harvested, and counted on a Microbetaplate counter (Wallac Turku, Finland) [29]. A stimulation index (SI) of ≥ 3 was considered positive.

IFN- γ ELISA. The concentration IFN- γ in supernatants was measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (U-CyTech, Utrecht, The Netherlands) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The detection limit of the assay was 20 pg/ml IFN- γ . Samples were tested in duplicate. An IFN- γ response ≥ 100 pg/ml was considered positive.

Flow cytometric analysis. PBMCs were thawed and rested. After 24 hours, PBMCs were stimulated for 16 hours with protein (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) in the presence of co-stimulatory antibodies anti-CD28 and anti-CD49d (Sanquin, Netherlands and BD Biosciences, respectively). Brefeldin A (3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$; Sigma) was added after the first 4 to 6 hours. Cells were stained for 30 minutes at 4°C using the following surface markers; anti-CD3-Pacific blue (PB), anti-CD4-peridinin chlorophyll protein (PercP)-Cy5.5, anti-CD8-AmCyan, anti-CD25-allophycocyanin (APC)-Cy5, anti-CD45RA-phycoerythrin (PE)-Cy5 and anti-CCR7-PE/Cy7 and intracellular staining was performed with

anti-IFN- γ -Alexa 700, anti-TNF- α -APC, anti-IL-2-PE and anti-CD69-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) (BD Biosciences) by using the Intrastain kit (Dako Cytomation, Denmark). Samples were acquired on an LSR II flow cytometer and analyzed using SPICE (software provided by Dr. M. Roederer, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease) and FlowJo software (Treestar Inc, Ashland, OR, USA). Cell populations should contain at least 100 events.

Statistical analyses. Differences between groups were analyzed with the non-parametrical Kruskal-Wallis test in GraphPad Prism (version 4). *P* values were corrected for multiple comparisons. The statistical significance level used was $P < 0.05$.

Results

Recognition of *Mtb* Rpf antigens by T cells from *Mtb*-responsive individuals

To determine the immunogenicities of both Rv0867c and Rv2389c, we investigated whether these two *Mtb* Rpf proteins were recognized by PBMCs of mycobacterium-exposed individuals. PBMCs from four groups of Dutch individuals were tested: (i) HIV-negative, treated tuberculosis patients (TB; $n = 9$); (ii) tuberculin skin test (TST)-positive individuals (TST; $n = 10$); (iii) BCG-vaccinated individuals (BCG; $n = 10$); and (iv) non-BCG-vaccinated, TST-negative and *in vitro* purified-protein-derivative (PPD)-negative healthy controls (HCs; $n = 10$). The secretion of four cytokines (IFN- γ , IL1- β , IL-6 and TNF- α) was analyzed as a multiparameter read out of antigen-specific responses.

As expected, IFN- γ production in response to PPD was low in healthy individuals, whereas the TST⁺ individuals and TB patients showed high responses to PPD, by both IFN- γ and the other cytokines analyzed. The BCG-vaccinated individuals showed intermediate levels of responses (Figure 1A to D).

While minor IFN- γ levels were detectable in the three mycobacterium-exposed groups in response to Rv0867c, higher levels were found in response to Rv2389c (HCs and BCG; $P < 0.05$). The healthy controls did not respond to Rv0867c and Rv2389c (Figure 1A). No IL-1 β was produced upon Rv0867c stimulation in any of the four groups analyzed; however, Rv2389c stimulation induced production of IL-1 β in all mycobacterium-exposed groups (HCs and TB; $P < 0.05$), but not in the healthy controls (Figure 1B). Rv0867c stimulation also induced IL-6 in all three mycobacterium-exposed groups, but not in the healthy individuals (HCs, TST, and TB $P < 0.05$). In contrast to Rv0867c, Rv2389c induced high levels of IL-6 in the HC group but much higher levels in the mycobacterium-exposed individuals (HCs and TB; $P < 0.05$) (Figure 1C). Rv2389c stimulation induced also high levels of TNF- α , especially within the mycobacterium-exposed groups (HCs and TB $P < 0.05$), while Rv0867c induced only limited levels of TNF- α in all four groups (Figure 1D).

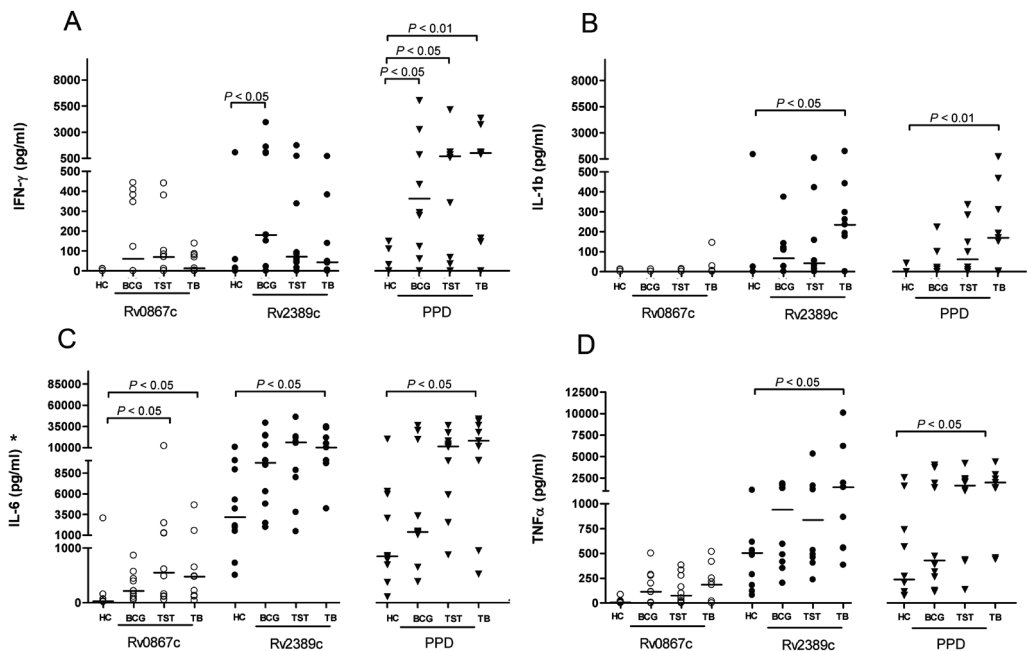


Figure 1. Cytokine and chemokine profiling. PBMCs from healthy individuals (HC; $n = 10$), BCG-vaccinated individuals (BCG; $n = 10$), TST-positive individuals (TST; $n = 10$) and TB patients (TB; $n = 9$) were stimulated with Rv0867c and Rv2389c proteins and PPD for 6 days. Levels of IFN- γ (A), IL-1 β (B), IL-6 (C) and TNF- α (D) were measured and corrected for background levels. Horizontal bars represent median cytokine production levels. Antigen stimuli: Rv0867c open circles (\circ), Rv2389c closed circles (\bullet) and PPD inverted closed triangles (\blacktriangledown) * Background not corrected.

Overall, the mycobacterium-exposed individuals produced the highest levels of cytokines upon Rv0867c and Rv2389c stimulation, and TB patients were often the highest responders to Rv2389c (HCs and TB; $P < 0.05$ for IL-1 β , IL-6 and TNF- α). Rv2389c was more strongly recognized than Rv0867c, which induced no or low levels of cytokines.

Identification of immunogenic peptides of *Mtb* Rpf proteins

To further characterize the Rpf-specific responses observed above, five CD4 $^{+}$ T-cell lines specific for Rv0867c and five CD4 $^{+}$ T-cell lines specific for Rv2389c were generated. These T-cell lines were tested for recognition of all individual 20-mer peptides (overlapping by 10 amino acids) (see Supplementary Table S1A and B) and both IFN- γ production and T-cell proliferation were measured. Table 1 shows the recognition pattern of the Rpf peptides by the Rv0867c and Rv2389c antigen-specific T-cell lines examined. All T-cell lines responded to the corresponding Rpf protein and to one or more of the proteins' corresponding individual peptides. The Rv0867c-specific T-cell lines recognized many different peptides ranging from 1/5 to 4/5 of the donors. Four out of the five T-cell lines recognized peptides P5₄₁₋₆₀ and P10₉₁₋₁₁₀ and three of the five lines recognized

peptide P7₆₁₋₈₀. In contrast to Rv0867c-specific T cells, all Rv2389c-specific T-cell lines recognized only a single peptide, P12₁₁₁₋₁₃₀.

Table 1. CD4⁺ antigen-specific T-cell responses to single peptides of *Mtb* Rpf proteins ^a

peptide	rpf protein		number of responding T-cell lines
	Rv0867c	Rv2389c	
p1 ₁₋₂₀			n = 0
p2 ₁₁₋₃₀			
p3 ₂₁₋₄₀			
p4 ₃₁₋₅₀			
p5 ₄₁₋₆₀			
p6 ₅₁₋₇₀			
p7 ₆₁₋₈₀			n = 1
p8 ₇₁₋₉₀			
p9 ₈₁₋₁₀₀			n = 2
p10 ₉₁₋₁₁₀			
p11 ₁₀₁₋₁₂₀			n = 3
p12 ₁₁₁₋₁₃₀			
p13 ₁₂₁₋₁₄₀			n = 4
p14 ₁₃₁₋₁₅₀			
p15 ₁₄₁₋₁₆₀			n = 5
p16 ₁₅₁₋₁₇₀			
p17 ₁₆₁₋₁₈₀			
p18 ₁₇₁₋₁₉₀			
p19 ₁₈₁₋₂₀₀			
p20 ₁₉₁₋₂₁₀			
p21 ₂₀₁₋₂₂₀			
p22 ₂₁₁₋₂₃₀			
p23 ₂₂₁₋₂₄₀			
p24 ₂₃₁₋₂₅₀			
p25 ₂₄₁₋₂₆₀			
p26 ₂₅₁₋₂₇₀			
p27 ₂₆₁₋₂₈₀			
p28 ₂₇₁₋₂₉₀			
p29 ₂₈₁₋₃₀₀			
p30 ₂₉₁₋₃₁₀			
p31 ₃₀₁₋₃₂₀			
p32 ₃₁₁₋₃₃₀			
p33 ₃₂₁₋₃₄₀			
p34 ₃₃₁₋₃₅₀			
p35 ₃₄₁₋₃₆₀			
p36 ₃₅₁₋₃₇₀			
p37 ₃₆₁₋₃₈₀			
p38 ₃₇₁₋₃₉₀			
p39 ₃₈₁₋₄₀₀			
p40 ₃₈₈₋₄₀₇			

^a Peptide responses with a proliferation SI of ≥ 3 and IFN- γ responses of ≥ 100 pg/ml were considered positive.

Characterization of *Mtb* Rpf-specific polyfunctional T cells in long-term *Mtb* non-progressors

We next investigated T-cell responses to Rv0867c and Rv2389c antigens in a cohort of long-term *Mtb* non-progressors, which had been infected several decades ago but had never developed any signs of active TB. We analyzed responsive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subsets producing IFN- γ , TNF- α and/or IL-2 by multiparameter flow cytometry. Polyfunctional T cells have been associated with protection following vaccination [30], but the situation in human infection is more complex, as polyfunctional T cells are also found in active TB patients [3]. In any case, the memory T-cell subsets responding to Rv0867c or Rv2389c was analyzed using PBMCs from long-term non-progressors ($n = 12$) and PPD-negative HCs ($n = 11$).

Figure 2A shows that the Rv0867c protein induced polyfunctional T cells with different cytokine profiles (triple-positive (IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ IL-2⁺) or double-positive (IFN- γ ⁺ TNF α ⁺, TNF α ⁺ IL-2⁺ and IFN- γ ⁺ IL-2⁺) cells). Such polyfunctional T cells were detected in 9 out of the 12 long-term latently infected individuals. Strikingly, higher frequencies of polyfunctional CD8⁺ T cells (ranging between 0.20 and 9.72%) were observed, exceeding those of CD4⁺ T cells (ranging between 0.21 and 1.29%). Only 2 out of 12 donors showed polyfunctional CD8⁺ T cells recognizing Rv2389c, typically with a lower frequency (ranging between 0.24 and 0.82%) (Figure 2C). Single-cytokine-producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were observed for both Rv0867c and Rv2389c, where IFN- γ ⁺ CD4⁺ T cells are the most prominent T-cell subset of all single-cytokine-producing T cells. No polyfunctional T cells were induced within the negative healthy control population upon Rv0867c stimulation, although for unknown reasons, low numbers of IL-2⁺ single-positive cells were seen (Figure 2B). Some low frequencies of polyfunctional and single-positive T cells were observed upon Rv2389c stimulation within the healthy control group (Figure 2D), but lower than those in the latently infected group.

Figure 2E shows the proportions of polyfunctional and single-positive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells for Rv0867c, as this antigen was the best recognized in this cohort. IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ double-cytokine-producing CD8⁺ polyfunctional T cells were the most prominent polyfunctional T-cell subset identified.

In addition, we analyzed the expression of the T-cell memory markers CCR7 and CD45RA in these IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ double-cytokine-producing CD8⁺ T cells in the Rv0867c responders. After dividing the responding T-cells into central memory (T_{cm}) and effector memory (T_{em}) T-cell subsets (according to Seder *et al.* [31;32]), we found that Rv0867c-responding IFN- γ ⁺ TNF α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells consisted mostly of effector memory (CCR7⁻ and CD45RA⁺) and effector (T_{eff}) (CCR7⁻ and CD45RA⁺) T-cell subsets (Figure 2F). These data show the presence of Rv0867c-specific CD8⁺ memory and effector T cells in long-term *Mtb* non-progressors.

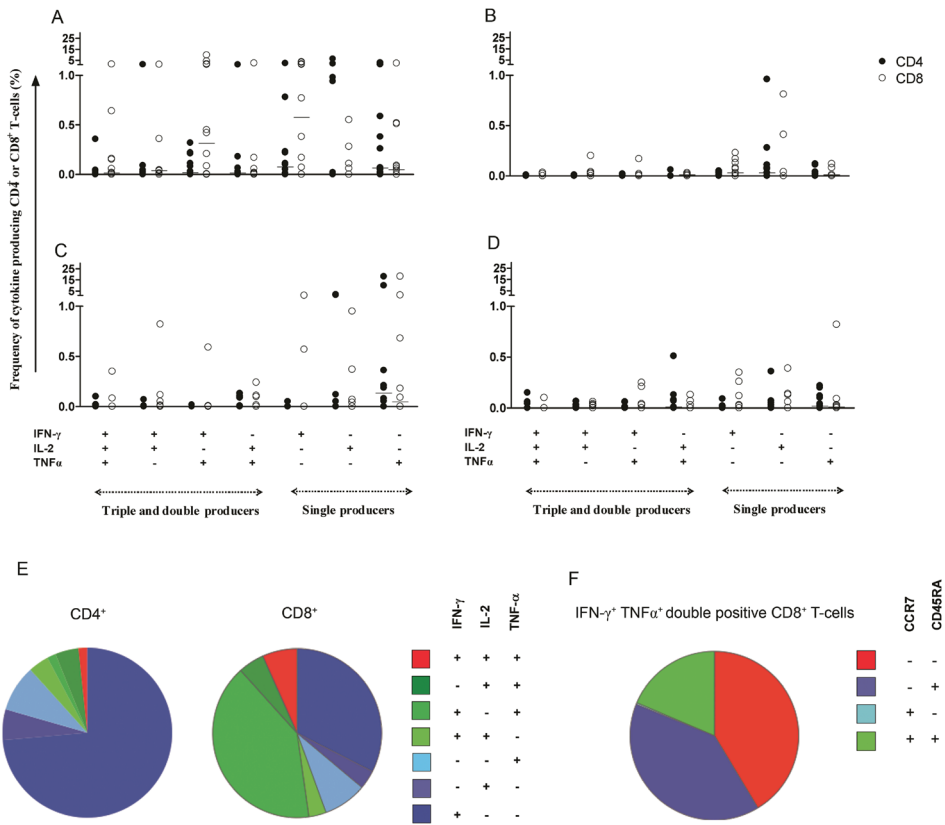


Figure 2. Frequency of antigen-specific polyfunctional T cells in long-term *Mtb* nonprogressors. Shown is the frequency of antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in long-term latently infected elderly subjects ($n = 12$), producing combinations of IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 after stimulation for 16 hours with Rv0867c (A) or Rv2389c (C) protein. Healthy individuals were also analyzed for their polyfunctional responses to Rv0867c (B) and Rv2389c (D). CD4⁺ T cells are indicated as closed circles (●) and CD8⁺ T cells as open circles (○). Horizontal bars represent the median frequency of antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells. Slices in pie chart represent the fraction of single (blue)-, double (green)-, or triple (red)-positive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells for Rv0867c (E). Expression of T-cell memory markers CCR7 and CD45RA was analyzed and shown for the largest T-cell population identified: Rv0867c-specific IFN- γ and TNF- α double-positive CD8⁺ T cells (F). Effector memory T cells are CCR7⁺ and CD45RA⁺; central memory T cells are CCR7⁺ and CD45RA⁺; naive T cells are CCR7⁺ and CD45RA⁺, and effector T cells are CCR7⁺ and CD45RA⁺.

Besides the quantity of the T-cell response, the quality of the T-cell response plays an important role in protection. We therefore also measured the median fluorescence intensity (MFI) of each cytokine produced by the Rv0867c-responsive T cells. Multiplication of the frequency by the MFI results in an integrated MFI (iMFI) value, which was introduced previously as a quantitative parameter of the overall functionality of the T-cell response analysed [30]. The MFI values showed that the triple-positive T cells had the highest MFI values, followed by the double-cytokine-producing T cells, whereas single-positive T cells showed only minor MFI values (data

not shown). However, when iMFI values were analyzed, the IFN- γ iMFI was the highest intensity within the IFN- γ^+ TNF- α^+ double-positive CD8 $^+$ T-cell population, followed by IFN- γ^+ single-cytokine-producing T cells (Figure 3A). This was also observed for TNF- α iMFI (Figure 3B). Taken together, these results indicate that double- and single-positive T cells contribute quantitatively more to the *Mtb* Rpf Rv0867c antigen response in long-term non-progressors than triple-positive T cells.

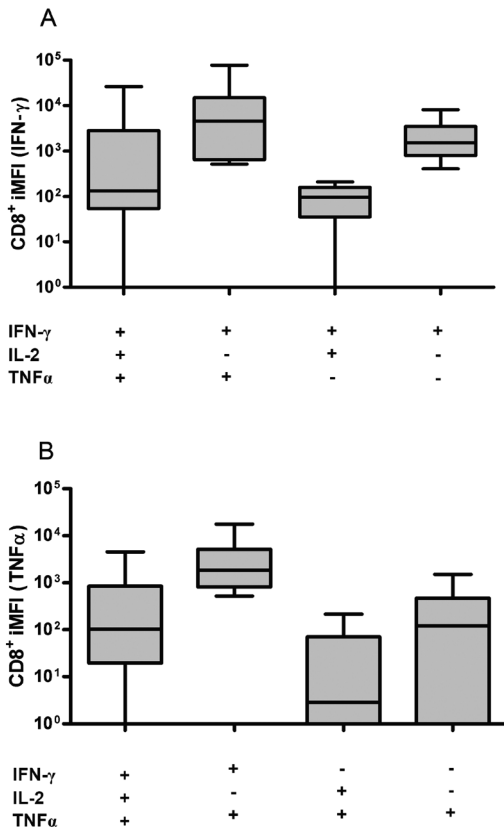


Figure 3. Integrated mean fluorescence intensity (iMFI) of IFN- γ , TNF- α and/or IL-2-producing CD8 $^+$ T cells. Shown is a box and whisker plot representing the iMFI values of CD8 $^+$ T cells from long-term nonprogressors ($n = 8$) in response to Rv0867c protein. iMFI is the product value of multiplication of the frequency of CD8 $^+$ T cells with the indicated (poly- or mono-) cytokine profiles with the MFI of IFN- γ (A) and TNF- α (B) produced by these T-cell subsets. The horizontal line represents the median, the lower boundary of the box represents the 25 $^{\text{th}}$ percentile, and the upper boundary represents the 75 $^{\text{th}}$ percentile. Whiskers extend from the box to the highest and lowest values.

Discussion

New TB vaccines are urgently needed to help control the TB pandemic. Both prophylactic and postexposure vaccines are considered important [33], but the antigens that can best be incorporated in such vaccines have been identified incompletely at best. Previously we have shown that dormancy-related or DosR regulon-encoded *Mtb* antigens, which are expressed during hypoxia and nitric oxide stress, were preferentially recognized by TST-positive individuals, suggesting an association with control of infection [22;34;35]. Unexpectedly, BCG vaccination failed to induce responses to these antigens in humans and mice, even though BCG is able to express the DosR regulon under hypoxia conditions *in vitro* [26]. In contrast to the DosR regulon-encoded antigens, *rpf* genes *Rv0867c* and *Rv2389c* are expressed by actively replicating early log-phase-grown *Mtb* [4]. *Rv0867c* and *Rv2389c* share the *M. luteus* Rpf protein's property in being able to resuscitate dormant mycobacteria. We therefore hypothesized that immunity directed against these proteins may play a role in sensing and detecting actively resuscitating and replicating *Mtb* organisms and therefore possibly also in host immune control of reactivating bacteria.

We observed significant differences in levels of *Rv0867c* and *Rv2389c* recognition between mycobacterium-exposed vs. PPD-negative individuals, yet some *Rv2389c* and, to a lesser extent, *Rv0867c* responses were found in the healthy PPD-nonresponding group. We have previously reported a similar recognition pattern for some *Mtb* dosR regulon-encoded antigens by PPD-nonresponding donors. We explained these results by cross-reactive immunity to nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) which share large parts of the DosR regulon with *Mtb* and *M. bovis* BCG [36]. Antigen contaminants (*E. coli* products) are less likely to be involved, since our recombinant proteins are standard quality control (QC) tested on cells from 4 to 5 PPD-negative donors and released only when no IFN- γ is produced. A BLAST search (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/>) of the *Mtb* *Rv0867c* and *Rv2389c* Rpf protein sequences indeed showed protein sequence identity in several NTM and nonmycobacterial environmental bacteria (Table 2). Part of the immunogenic peptides identified in our current study are indeed conserved in the identified protein sequences of the species shown in Table 2 (P5₄₁₋₆₀ of *Rv0867c* CE*GGNW*INT and P12₁₁₁₋₁₃₀ of *Rv2389c* TQG*GAWP*C), compatible with cross-reactivity at the polyclonal T-cell level.

To more precisely investigate the function and phenotype of *Rv0867c*- and *Rv2389c* specific T-cell subsets, we analyzed the presence of mono- and polyfunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in PBMCs of latently infected individuals who had been infected decades ago without developing TB. In the Dutch cohort above, we had identified *Rv2389c* as the best-recognized antigen, whereas in the long-term *Mtb* nonprogressors *Rv0867c* induced higher frequencies of polyfunctional and single-positive T cells. This difference might be attributable to the type and/or longevity of the infection as *Mtb* is more likely to be chronic than NTM infections, and *Mtb* might be a stronger immunogen than NTM.

Table 2. *Mtb* rpf protein sequence identity in NTM and nonmycobacterial environmental bacteria

Strain	% protein sequence identity to <i>Mtb</i> Rpf antigen ^a	
	Rv0867c	Rv2389c
NTM		
<i>Mycobacterium marinum</i> M	88	55
<i>Mycobacterium ulcerans</i> Agy99	88	54
<i>Mycobacterium avium</i> subsp. <i>Paratuberculosis</i> K10	84	49
<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp. strain MCS	76	55
<i>Mycobacterium vanbaalenii</i> PYR-1	76	52
<i>Mycobacterium smegmatis</i> MC2 155	78	57
<i>Mycobacterium avium</i> 104	83	59
<i>Mycobacterium bovis</i> BCG	100	100
Nonmycobacterial environmental bacteria		
<i>Nocardia farcinica</i> IFM 10152	62	58
<i>Rhodococcus jostii</i> RHA1	61	56
<i>Streptomyces avermitilis</i> MA-4680	56	45
<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i> A3(2)	70	43
<i>Corynebacterium jeikeium</i> K411	54	52
<i>Corynebacterium diphtheriae</i> NCTC 13129	55	45
<i>Corynebacterium glutamicum</i> ATCC 13032	55	54

^a H37Rv Rpf protein sequences were compared to nontuberculous mycobacteria and nonmycobacterial environmental bacterial strains by BLAST searches (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/>). The percentage of protein sequence identity is given per antigen and species. For analysis, a cutoff value of 40% was used.

Among the polyfunctional antigen-specific T cells present in the long-term nonprogressors, predominantly Rv0867c-specific CD8⁺ were identified, particularly double-producing IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺, Tem and Teff cells with high iMFI. This suggests that these two Rpf-specific CD8⁺ T-cell subsets may play a significant role in TB infection, next to triple-positive T cells. Of interest, IFN- γ ⁺ TNF α ⁺ double-positive CD8⁺ T cells were also found following vaccination with AERAS-402 vaccine, containing Ag85A, Ag85B, and TB10.4 antigens as a BCG boost, and these cells persisted over time [37]. Overall, CD8⁺ T cells are important in controlling *Mtb* infection, and the identification of prominent populations of Rv0867c-specific CD8⁺ T cells supports this notion. Nevertheless, relatively little is known about these antigen-specific polyfunctional CD8⁺ T cells and their role in protection [38].

Rv0867c-specific, IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ double-cytokine-producing CD8⁺ T cells were mainly Tem and Teff cells. These high CD8⁺ Tem en Teff subset responses to Rv0867c in the long-term *Mtb* nonprogressors do not seem to correspond to the hypothesis that after clearance of infection Tem populations gradually wane, resulting mainly in long-lived Tcm cells [39]. A recent study showed that reexposure to antigens increased the number of CD8⁺ Tem cells. Our latently infected

individuals may be continuously reexposed to Rpf antigens expressed by either endogenous uncleared *Mtb* organisms or by other environmental bacteria expressing cross-reactive Rpf-like antigens, which boost Rv0867c-specific Tem cells [40]. Regardless, Rv0867c *Mtb* Rpf antigen is recognized in long-term *Mtb* nonprogressors, indicating that Rpf-specific T-cell responses are maintained for decades after the initial *Mtb* infection. Of note, the immune system changes with aging. Fewer naïve T-cells will be available during aging as a result of thymic involution. However, CD8⁺ Tcm, Tem, and Teff cells accumulate with age [41;42]. These data are in agreement with our Tem and Teff findings in our elderly population (average age, 70 years).

Besides CD8⁺ T cells, also a minor proportion of polyfunctional CD4⁺ T cells was observed (Figure 2E). Although previous results have indicated that triple-positive polyfunctional CD4⁺ T cells can be induced by BCG vaccination, they are also clearly present in TB patients, such that they do not necessarily correlate with protection against developing disease [3]. Minor but significant proportions of triple-positive CD4⁺ polyfunctional T cells were identified in our work reported here.

We conclude that *Mtb* Rv0867c and Rv2389c Rpf antigens are immunogenic in humans, as evidenced by antigen-specific cytokine production and high frequencies and iMFI values. Both single- and double-cytokine-producing Rv0867c-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were identified in long-term latently infected individuals who did not develop TB. By directing T-cell responses to *Mtb* Rpf antigens it may be possible to enhance immune surveillance of reactivating and resuscitating *Mtb* bacilli, and thereby help to control TB reactivation, which is the major complication in latent TB that keeps fuelling the TB pandemic.

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Supplementary data

Supplementary Table 1. Overlapping peptide sets of *Mtb* Rpf antigens.

S1A Overlapping peptide set of Rv0867c			S1B Overlapping peptide set of Rv2389c		
Peptide Number	Rv0867c aa sequence	Position start-end	Peptide Number	Rv2389c aa sequence	Position start-end
1	MSGRRHKPTTSNVSVAKIAF	1-20	1	MTPGLLTTAGAGRPRDRCAR	1-20
2	SNVSVAKIAFTGAVLGGGGI	11-30	2	AGRPRDRCARIVCTVFIETA	11-30
3	TGAVLGGGGIAMAAQATAAT	21-40	3	IVCTVFIETAVVATMFVALL	21-40
4	AMAAQATAATDGEWDQVARC	31-50	4	VVATMFVALLGLSTISSKAD	31-50
5	DGEWDQVARCESGGNWSINT	41-60	5	GLSTISSKADDIDWDAIAQC	41-60
6	ESGGNWSINTGNGYLGLLQF	51-70	6	DIDWDAIAQCESGGNWAANT	51-70
7	GNGYLGLLQFTQSTWAAHGG	61-80	7	ESGGNWAANTGNGLYGLLQI	61-80
8	TQSTWAAHGGGEFAPSQAQLA	71-90	8	GNGLYGLLQISQATWDSNGG	71-90
9	GEFAPSQAQLASREQQIAVGE	81-100	9	SQATWDSNGGVGSPAAASPQ	81-100
10	SREQQIAVGERVLATQGRGA	91-110	10	VGSPAAASPQQIEVADNIM	91-110
11	RVLATQGRGAWPVCGRGLSN	101-120	11	QQIEVADNIMKTQGGAWPK	101-120
12	WPVCGRGLSNATPREVLPAAS	111-130	12	KTQGGAWPKCSSCSQGDAP	111-130
13	ATPREVLPAASAMDAPLDAA	121-140	13	CSSCSQGDAPLGLSLTHILTF	121-140
14	AAMDAPLDAAVNGEPAPLA	131-150	14	LGLSLTHILTFLLAETGGCSG	131-150
15	AVNGEPAPLAPPADAPPV	141-160	15	THILTFLLAETGGCSGRDD	141-160
16	PPPADPAPPVELAANDLPAP	151-170			
17	ELAANDLPAPLGEPLPAAPA	161-180			
18	LGEPLPAAPADPAPPADLAP	171-190			
19	DPAPPADLAPPAPADVAPPV	181-200			
20	PAPADVAPPVELAVNDLPAP	191-210			
21	ELAVNDLPAPLGEPLPAAPA	201-220			
22	LGEPLPAAPADPAPPADLAP	211-230			
23	DPAPPADLAPPAPADLAPPA	221-240			
24	PAPADLAPPAPADLAPPAPA	231-250			
25	PADLAPPAPADLAPPVELAV	241-260			
26	DLAPPVELAVNDLPAPLGEPL	251-270			
27	NDLPAPLGEPLPAAPAEELAP	261-280			
28	LPAAPAEELAPPADLAPASAD	271-290			
29	PADLAPASADLAPPAPADLA	281-300			
30	LAPPAPADLAPPAPAEELAPP	291-310			
31	PPAPAEELAPPAPADLAPPAA	301-320			
32	APADLAPPAAVNEQTAPGDQ	311-330			
33	VNEQTAPGDQPATAPGGPVG	321-340			
34	PATAPGGPVGLATDLELPEP	331-350			
35	LATDLELPEPDPQPADAPPP	341-360			
36	DPQPADAPPPGDVTEAPAEET	351-370			
37	GDVTEAPAEETPQVSNIAYTE	361-380			
38	PQVSNIAYTEKKLWQAIRAQD	371-390			
39	KLWQAIRAQDVCNDALDSL	381-400			
40	AQDVCNDALDSLAPQYVIG	388-407			

CHAPTER 3

Double- and monofunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* DosR antigens and peptides in long-term latently infected individuals

Susanna Commandeur^{1,*}, May Young Lin^{1,*}, Krista E. van Meijgaarden^{1,*},
Annemieke H. Friggen¹, Kees L. M. C. Franken¹, Jan W. Drijfhout², Gro Ellen Korsvold³,
Fredrik Oftung³, Annemieke Geluk¹ and Tom H. M. Ottenhoff¹

¹ *Department of Infectious Diseases, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands;*

² *Department of Immunohematology and Blood Transfusion, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands;* ³ *Department of Bacteriology and Immunology, Division of Infectious Disease Control,*

Norwegian Institute of Public Health, Oslo, Norway

*These authors contributed equally to the study

Abstract

More than 2 billion individuals are latently infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*). Knowledge of the key *Mtb* antigens and responding T-cell subsets mediating protection against *Mtb* is critical for developing improved tuberculosis (TB) vaccines. We previously reported that *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens are recognized well by human T cells in association with control of *Mtb* infection. The characteristics of the responding T-cell subsets, however, remained unidentified. We have therefore studied the cytokine production and memory phenotypes of *Mtb* DosR-regulon encoded antigen-specific T cells from individuals who had been infected with *Mtb* decades ago, yet never developed TB (long-term latent *Mtb*-infected individuals). Using multi-parameter flow cytometry and intracellular cytokine staining for IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2, we found double and single cytokine producing CD4⁺ as well as CD8⁺ T cells to be the most prominent subsets, particularly IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells. The majority of these T cells comprised effector memory and effector T cells. Furthermore, CFSE labeling revealed strong CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell proliferative responses induced by several "immunodominant" *Mtb* DosR antigens and their specific peptide epitopes. These findings demonstrate the prominent presence of double- and monofunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses in naturally protected individuals and support the possibility of designing *Mtb* DosR antigen-based TB vaccines.

Introduction

Host defense against mycobacteria critically depends on effective innate and adaptive immunity, culminating in the activity of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*)- specific T cells and in the formation of granulomas that contain *Mtb* bacilli. Both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses are involved, and it is undisputed that Th1- and Th17-like cytokines (IL-12, IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-17) are crucial for optimal host immunity [1;2]. Tuberculosis (TB) continues to claim almost 2 million lives each year, and causes active (infectious) TB disease in over 9 million new cases per annum. Control of TB is further impeded by the strong increase in TB morbidity and mortality due to HIV co-infection, and the rise of multi-drug resistant and extensively drug-resistant *Mtb* strains [3]. At least 2 billion people are latently infected with *Mtb*, representing a huge reservoir of latently infected individuals from which most new TB cases arise. While 90-98% of all *Mtb*-infected individuals are able to contain infection asymptotically in a latent state, 2-10% of these *Mtb*-infected individuals will progress towards developing TB during their lifetime.

Despite strong international efforts in TB vaccine development, *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) continues to be the only available TB vaccine. BCG vaccination induces effective protection against severe TB in young children and protects against leprosy, but does not provide sufficient protection against the severe and contagious form of TB; pulmonary TB in adults [4;5]. Moreover, BCG does not protect against TB reactivation later in life. Ideally, not only improved preventive vaccines with pre-exposure activity but also therapeutic vaccines with post-exposure activity during late-phase infection are urgently required [2;6]. Such vaccines should prevent reactivation of TB from latency by inducing and maintaining robust immunity to *Mtb* antigens that are expressed by persisting *Mtb* bacilli during latent infection. Such immune responses may not only help controlling but perhaps also eradicating persisting bacilli.

Work from our group has shown that several genes from the recently identified *Mtb* DosR (Rv3133c) regulon encode particular antigens that induce significant T-cell responses in *Mtb*-infected individuals (latently infected or active TB disease) [7]. This 48-gene DosR-regulon is expressed by *Mtb* during *in vitro* exposure to hypoxia, low-dose nitric oxide and carbon monoxide, conditions thought to be encountered by *Mtb* *in vivo* when persisting in immunocompetent hosts [8]. Approximately half of the *Mtb* dosR-regulon genes are also expressed over prolonged periods of time in a related stress model, the enduring hypoxia response model [9]. Of note, immunity to *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens is associated with control of latent *Mtb* infection, as several DosR-regulon-encoded antigens are preferentially recognized by individuals with latent *Mtb* infection [7;10;11]. Thus, enhancing immune responses to these antigens might contribute towards controlling persistent *Mtb* infection with the potential to help preventing reactivation TB disease.

The precise nature of the human T-cell response to *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens has not been studied in detail thus far. Most studies have documented IFN- γ production in response

to *Mtb* DosR antigens, but the major cellular source(s) of the produced IFN- γ have not been identified, neither was concomitant production of other cytokines assessed [7;12-14].

In this study we show that *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens induce antigen and peptide specific, double and single cytokine producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in elderly persons who had been infected with *Mtb* decades ago in the pre-antibiotic era, yet never developed TB (designated here as long-term latent *Mtb*-infected individuals, (ltLTBIs)). Among the responding cells, IFN- γ ⁺TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were highly prevalent, the majority being effector memory (CCR7⁻CD45RA⁻) or effector (CCR7⁺CD45RA⁺) T cells. Furthermore, a register of peptide epitopes recognized by both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells was identified for several *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens, which are potently recognized in humans [7]. Collectively, these results underscore the importance of *Mtb* DosR antigens and their association with control of latent *Mtb* infection.

Materials and methods

Study subjects. We studied PBMCs derived from a Norwegian group that had been exposed to *Mtb* decades ago, but had never developed TB despite lack of any treatment. This population was designed as long-term LTBI (ltLTBIs) ($n = 13$). Their ages ranged from 62 to 74 years (average 70 years) with tuberculin skin test indurations ranging from 12 to 60 mm (average 18 mm). About 77% (10/13) of the Norwegian donors tested positive for Quantiferon[®] TB Gold (Cellestis Carnegie, Victoria, Australia). PBMCs of healthy PPD negative (PPD⁻) blood bank donors were used as negative controls. Donors were considered PPD⁻ when IFN- γ responses to PPD was < 100 pg/ml. For the second study, buffy coats from 21 *in vitro* PPD responsive (PPD⁺) healthy anonymous, HLA-typed blood bank donors were included. PPD responding donors were considered positive when IFN- γ responses (corrected for background values) to PPD exceeded 100 pg/ml, in line with our previous studies [7;15;16]. Buffy coats were used since the number of cells derived from that source allowed us to perform experiments in which the *Mtb* DosR antigen and all single peptides could be tested simultaneously. All donors were HIV-negative and written informed consent was obtained prior venipuncture. The study protocol (P207/99) was approved by the Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics in Norway and the Institutional Review Board of the Leiden University Medical Center. PBMCs were isolated by standard Ficoll density gradient centrifugation using Leucosep[®] tubes (Greiner Bio-one, Alphen aan den Rijn, The Netherlands). PBMCs were collected and stored in liquid nitrogen until use.

***Mtb* recombinant antigens and synthetic peptides.** Recombinant proteins were produced as described previously [17]. In short, PCR was used to amplify the selected *Mtb* H37Rv genes from genomic H37Rv DNA. The PCR products were cloned using Gateway Technology (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA) and were subsequently sequenced. *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 (DE3) was used to over-express *Mtb* proteins. Recombinant proteins were further purified as described

previously [17]. All recombinant proteins were tested in quality control assays including, size and purity check, determination of residual endotoxin levels as well as non-specific T-cell stimulation and cellular toxicity in lymphocyte stimulation assays [16]. PPD (batch RT49) was purchased from Statens Serum Institute (Copenhagen, Denmark).

Synthetic peptides were synthesized as previously described [18]. Peptides from *Mtb* DosR antigens Rv1733c, Rv2029c, Rv2031c and control antigen Ag85B were 20-mers peptides with 10 aa overlap, except peptides 20-22 of Ag85B which were 15-mers with 10 aa overlap (Supplementary Table S1A-D). The 20-mer peptides of Rv1733c and Rv2029c were elongated with two lysine (K) residues at the C-terminal to improve solubility. The HLA-A*0201-restricted, HIV-1 p17 Gag₇₇₋₈₅ epitope (SLYNTVATL) was used as control peptide [19].

Functional T-cell analysis. T-cell phenotype analysis was performed as previously described [20]. In brief, PBMCs were stimulated for 16 hours with protein (10 µg/ml) or peptide pools (5 µg/ml) in the presence of co-stimulatory antibodies anti-CD28/anti-CD49d (Sanquin, The Netherlands and BD Biosciences respectively). After 4-6 hours, Brefeldin A (3 µg/ml; Sigma) was added to the culture. Cell surface staining was performed for the following markers; CD3-PB, CD4-PercP/Cy5.5, CD8-AmCyan, CD45RA-PE/Cy5, CD25-APC/Cy7 and CCR7-PE/Cy7. Subsequently, intracellular markers were stained with IFN-γ-Alexa700, TNF-α-APC, IL-2-PE and CD69-FITC (BD Biosciences) using Intrastain kit (Dako Cytomation, Denmark). Samples were acquired on an LSRII. CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ populations of $\geq 2 \times 10^5$ events were analyzed using FlowJo (Treestar, Ashland, OR, USA) and SPICE software (provided by Dr. Mario Roederer, Vaccine Research Center, NIAID, NIH, USA). Boolean gate analysis was used to study the different single, double and polyfunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells.

T-cell proliferation. Proliferation was measured using carboxy-fluorescein diacetate, succinimidyl ester (CFSE) dilution and flow cytometry. PBMCs from study subjects were thawed, washed and labeled with CFSE (Molecular Probes, Leiden, The Netherlands) at a final concentration of 5 µM for 10 minutes at 37 °C. Washed, counted and viable cells were seeded in triplicates in 96-well round-bottom plates at a concentration of 1.5×10^5 cells/well in the presence of control antigens (PPD 5 µg/ml, PHA 2 µg/ml (Remel, Oxoid, Haarlem, The Netherlands)) or test antigens and peptides (all at final concentrations of 10 µg/ml). Cells were cultured in IMDM supplemented with glutamax, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Invitrogen, Breda, The Netherlands), and 10% human serum at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After 7 days of incubation, cells were stained for further analysis on the flow-cytometer.

Cells were stained for the following surface markers; CD8-APC (DakoCytomation, Heverlee, Belgium), CD3-PerCP and CD4-PE (BD Biosciences), washed in PBS 0.1% BSA (Sigma Aldrich, Zwijndrecht, The Netherlands), fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde (Pharmacy LUMC, The Netherlands) and acquired on an LSRII with HTS plate loader (BD Biosciences). Analysis was

performed using FACS DIVA software (BD Biosciences). Live lymphocyte gated cells combined with gating of CD3⁺ CD4⁺ and CD3⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were analyzed for proliferation using CFSE dye dilution. The Δ geometric mean was used as a measure of proliferation and calculated as follows: Δ geometric mean = geometric mean (non-proliferated cells) - geometric mean (total cells). The Δ geometric mean was then used to calculate the 'relative proliferation', which is the percentage of maximal proliferation (PHA) corrected for spontaneous proliferation (HIV-1 p17_{Gag77-85}) ($(\Delta$ geometric mean sample - Δ geometric mean control medium) / (Δ geometric mean PHA - Δ geometric mean control medium)) x 100% = % of maximal proliferation. The cut-off value for a positive proliferative response was arbitrarily set at 10% relative proliferation in order to limit the number of candidate epitopes to be evaluated in subsequent experiments [21].

IFN- γ ELISA. IFN- γ concentration in cellular supernatants was detected using ELISA (U-CyTech, Utrecht, The Netherlands) as previously described [20].

Results

Selection of recombinant *Mtb* DosR antigens

Our previous work showed that *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens are efficiently recognized by *Mtb*-exposed individuals, particularly asymptomatic TST positive individuals [7;12;13]. To study the nature of the response against these antigens in more detail, we selected Rv1733c and Rv2029c as two *Mtb* DosR proteins consistently ranking among the top ten most frequently recognized *Mtb* DosR antigens in *Mtb* exposed individuals across different ethnic populations [7;12;13]. The secreted protein Ag85B and the *Mtb* DosR antigen Rv2031c (HspX, hsp16, α -crystallin) were included as control antigens [22-24]. Besides recombinant proteins (Table 1) overlapping sets of synthetic peptides of all four antigens were produced and tested as well (Supporting Information Table S1A-D).

Table 1. Selected *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* antigens tested in present study

	Rv number	Gene name ^a	Molecular mass (kDa) ^a	product ^a	References
DosR genes	Rv1733c		22,4	conserved transmembrane protein	[7;11-13]
	Rv2029c	<i>pfkB</i>	35,4	phosphofructokinase PfkB	[7;11;12]
	Rv2031c	<i>hspX</i>	16,3	heat shock protein HspX (α -crystallin)	[7;10;22-24]
Reference gene	Rv1886c	<i>fbpB</i>	34,6	secreted antigen 85-B fbpB (mycolyltransferase 85B, Ag85B)	[37]

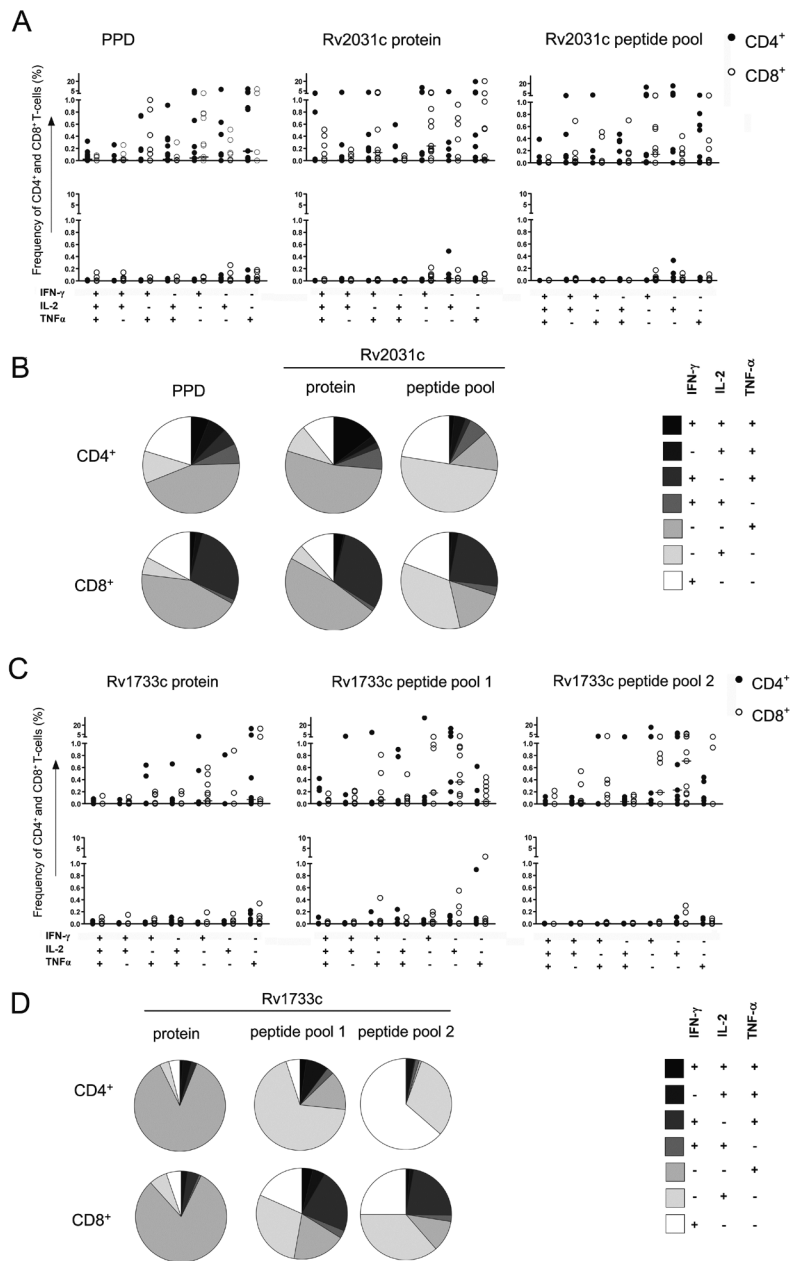
^a Annotations are from www.tbd.org and <http://genolist.pasteur.fr/TubercuList/>

Single, double and polyfunctional T-cell responses against *Mtb* DosR antigens in ltLTBIs

Mtb DosR antigen-specific T-cell recognition described previously in *Mtb*-exposed donors was based mostly on the production of IFN- γ . Previously, polyfunctional T cells producing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 have been suggested as possible markers of protective immunity, based on observations that vaccine-induced triple positive T cells correlated well with protection [25-31]. However, other studies reported that such T cells were associated with active TB disease [32-35].

The nature of *Mtb* DosR antigen-responsive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subsets in untreated *Mtb*-exposed donors who had been infected several decades ago, yet never developed any signs or symptoms of active TB (ltLTBIs), was studied here. *In vitro* purified protein derivative of *Mtb* (PPD) negative (PPD⁻) donors were included as uninfected controls. PBMCs of ltLTBIs and PPD⁻ donors were stimulated with *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens or corresponding peptide pools and the responses were analyzed using multi-parameter flow cytometry (Supplementary Figure S1A and S1B). Donors were considered positive when the frequency of a double or polyfunctional T-cell subset population was $\geq 0.2\%$, which is equivalent to ≥ 200 events.

In ltLTBIs high percentages of IFN- γ , TNF- α and/or IL-2 cytokine producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were found in response to PPD (0.23-7.91% and 0.25-7.55%, respectively), Rv2031c protein (0.21-19.71% and 0.25-20.35%, respectively) and the Rv2031c peptide pool (0.2-16.28% and 0.23-32.92%, respectively), whereas no such responses were observed in PPD⁻ controls (Figure 1A). The highest frequencies were consistently found within the single cytokine producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell populations. Interestingly, many double producing T cells were identified within the CD8⁺ T-cell population, as shown by Figure 1B, which depicts the proportions of polyfunctional as well as double and single cytokine-producing T cells. For *Mtb* DosR antigen Rv1733c, two peptide pools were tested (Figure 1C). Again high CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses were observed (0.43-14.41% and 0.2-14.25%, respectively), with single positive cells being the most frequent. In addition, substantial numbers of double cytokine-producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were present in both peptide pool responsive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cells populations, IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells being the most frequent (Figure 1D). Low to no Rv1733c-specific responses were identified within the PPD⁻ controls (Figure 1C). A comparable pattern was observed for Rv2029c (0.29-8.41% CD4⁺ T cells and 0.36-9.55% CD8⁺ T cells). Unlike Rv1733c, the Rv2029c protein induced a considerable fraction of IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells. Some responses to Rv2029c peptide pool 1 were also observed in the PPD⁻ group, but no responses were seen to peptide pools 2 and 3 (Figure 1E and 1F). Of note, stimulation of PBMCs with Staphylococcus enterotoxin B induced high percentages of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells producing single (0.3-26.44% CD4⁺ T cells and 0.29-12.6% CD8⁺ T cells), double (0.23-22.26% CD4⁺ T cells and 0.24-20.17% CD8⁺ T cells) and triple (0.29-5.37% CD4⁺ T cell and 0.54-6.91% CD8⁺ T cells) cytokines in both ltLTBIs and PPD⁻ donors (data not shown).



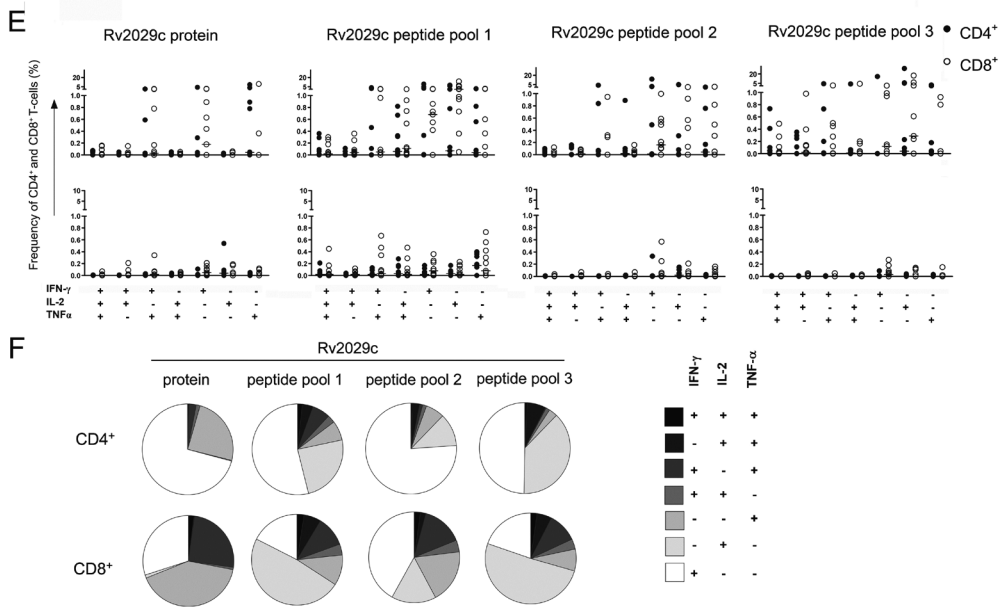


Figure 1. Frequency of antigen-specific polyfunctional T cells in ltLTBIs. Frequency of antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in ltLTBIs (upper panel) and PPD⁻ control donors (lower panel), producing combinations of IFN- γ , TNF- α or IL-2 after stimulation for 16 hours with control antigens as determined by flow cytometry. (A) Stimulation with PPD, Rv2031c protein and Rv2031c peptide pool 1, $n = 13$ and $n = 11$, (C) stimulation with Rv1733c protein and corresponding peptide pools 1 and 2, $n = 11$ and (E) stimulation with Rv2029c protein and corresponding peptide pools 1-3, $n = 11$. CD4⁺ T cells are indicated as closed circles (●) and CD8⁺ T cells as open circles (○). Horizontal bars represent the median frequency of antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells. (B, D and F) Pie chart representation of the proportion of single-, double- or triple-positive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells for each antigen. Only CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ populations of $\geq 2 \times 10^5$ events were analyzed. Donors were considered positive when the frequency of a double or polyfunctional T-cell subset population was $\geq 0.2\%$, which corresponds to ≥ 200 events. Range total CD4⁺ T cells: 0-3694 events and total CD8⁺ T cells: 0-3937 events.

Interestingly, the IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T-cell population consistently was the most frequent multiple cytokine-producing T-cell subset identified (Figure 1B, D and F). To assess the memory phenotype of these cells, we measured expression of memory markers CCR7 and CD45RA by *Mtb* antigen or peptide responsive cells from the ltLTBI population (Figure 2A and B). T-cell subsets were classified according to the model described by Seder *et al.* [36]. Only a minor fraction of the IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells appeared to be “naïve” (CCR7⁺CD45RA⁺) or central memory T cells (CCR7⁺CD45RA⁻), while most were found to be effector memory (CCR7⁻CD45RA⁻) T cells, followed by effector (CCR7⁻CD45RA⁺) T cells (percentages ranged between 36 and 62% (SD \pm 0-35) for effector memory T cells and 22-51% (SD \pm 2.8-32) for effector T cells).

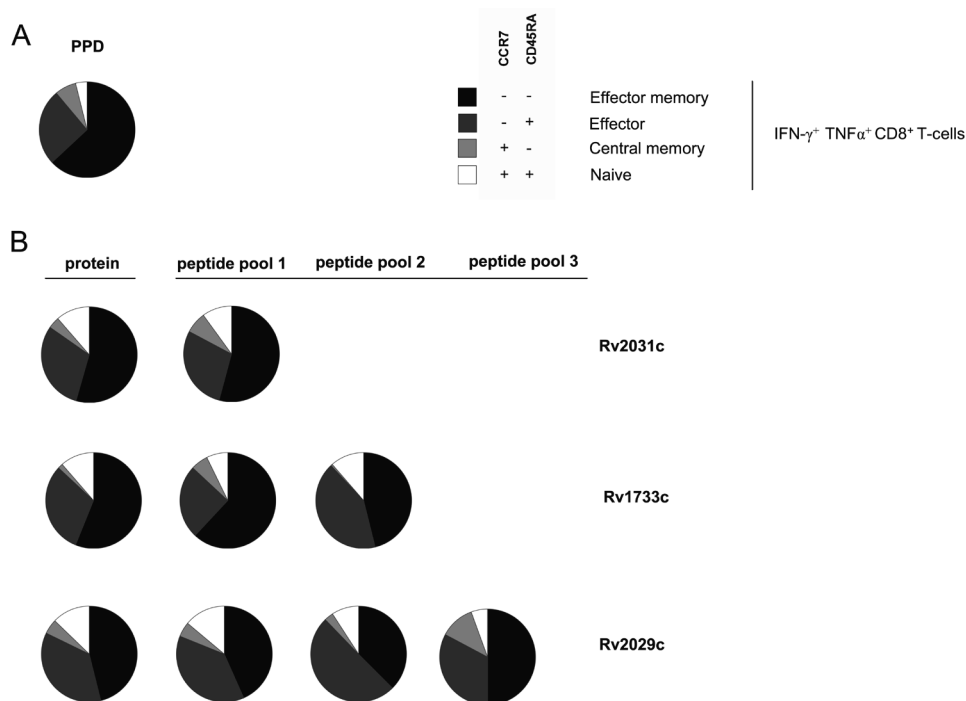


Figure 2. T-cell memory subset distribution of IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells. Expression of T-cell memory markers CCR7 and CD45RA was analyzed by flow cytometry in IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells of (A) PPD responders ($n = 4$) and (B) *Mtb* antigen or peptide pool responders from the hLTBI donors. Rv2031c protein ($n = 3$), Rv2031 peptide pool 1 ($n = 2$), Rv1733c protein ($n = 2$), Rv1733c peptide pool 1 ($n = 2$), Rv1733c peptide pool 2 ($n = 3$), Rv2029c protein ($n = 3$), Rv2029c peptide pool 1 ($n = 4$), Rv2029c peptide pool 2 ($n = 3$) and Rv2029c peptide pool 3 ($n = 3$). CD8⁺ populations with $\geq 2 \times 10^5$ events were analyzed. Effector memory T cells are CCR7⁻ and CD45RA⁻, central memory T cells are CCR7⁺ and CD45RA⁻, naive T cells are CCR7⁺ and CD45RA⁺ and effector T cells are CCR7⁻ and CD45RA⁺.

Taken together, our results show the presence of *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigen-specific double- and monofunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses in hLTBI. IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were the most prominently present multiple cytokine-producing T cells, and comprised mainly of effector memory and effector T cells.

Peptide epitope mapping of *Mtb* DosR antigens by CFSE proliferation and flow cytometry

Next, we analyzed single peptide-induced responses in PPD positive (PPD⁺) individuals in order to identify immunogenic *Mtb* DosR antigen epitopes. In view of the number of cells required for these analyses, we used buffy coat derived PBMCs. PBMCs of PPD⁺ individuals were incubated with each single peptide of *Mtb* DosR Rv1733c, Rv2029c and Rv2031c and the control protein Ag85B. Proliferative responses were measured using CFSE labeling, an assay that we have described previously [21;34]. Figure 3 demonstrates typical proliferation profiles of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in response to *Mtb* antigens and control conditions in one PPD⁺ donor. Following stimulation of PBMCs with PPD, Rv1733c or its corresponding peptides, significant CD4⁺ and to a lesser extent CD8⁺ T-cell proliferation were observed (Figure 3A and B, respectively). No proliferation was observed to the irrelevant control peptide HIV-gag₇₇₋₈₅ or for medium only (data not shown). A relative proliferation (see Material and methods for calculation) of 10% was considered positive in this assay, in line with previous studies [21;34]. Responses to previously published HLA class I and class II restricted epitopes of Ag85B [37] and Rv2031c [24;35;38-40] could be confirmed, validating this approach (Figure 3A and B).

Results for CFSE-labeled PBMCs from all 15 PPD⁺ donors in response to PPD, *Mtb* DosR-regulon encoded proteins Rv1733c, Rv2029c and Rv2031c and Ag85B protein and all respective single peptides from each of the four antigens are given in Figure 4A and B, showing comprehensive epitope maps for CD4⁺ (Figure 4A) or CD8⁺ (Figure 4B) T cells. Notwithstanding the expected inter-individual differences in antigen and peptide recognition patterns, all 15 PPD⁺ donors responded to at least one of the recombinant proteins and/or peptides investigated. Recombinant antigens Rv1733c, Rv2029c and Rv1886c (Ag85B) were recognized efficiently: 7/15 PPD⁺ donors recognized Rv2029c (CD4⁺: 15-97.2%, CD8⁺: 10.6-66.6%), 5/15 recognized Rv1733c (CD4⁺: 20.3-40%, CD8⁺: 12.2-31.1) and 4/15 recognized Ag85B (CD4⁺: 13.8-53.4%, CD8⁺: 12.6-97.7%). Corresponding to our previous observations, Rv2031c/hspX/*acr* was recognized by a minority of the donors (CD4⁺: 10.9-16.4%, CD8⁺: 42.7%) [7;12].

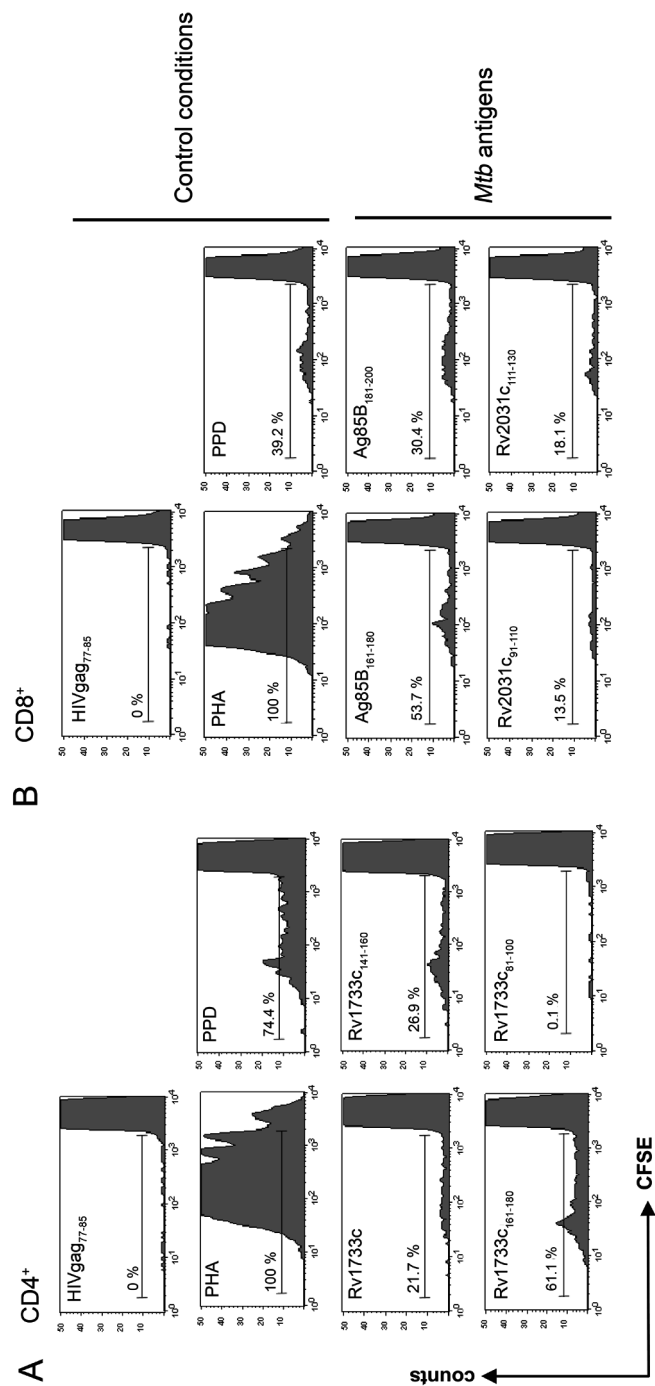


Figure 3. T-cell proliferation in response to *Mtb* antigens, peptides and control conditions. PBMCs from PPD responsive donor 9 were stimulated with PHA or HIVgag₅₇₋₈₅ as positive and negative controls, respectively, or with recombinant *Mtb* antigens. After 6 days, cellular proliferation as measured by CFSE dye dilution was measured in (A) CD4⁺ or (B) CD8⁺ T cells. CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were gated from a CD3⁺ T-cell gate together with a live lymphocyte gate. Individual histogram plots show the percentage relative proliferation. PBMCs were stimulated with (A) Rv1733c protein and corresponding peptides and (B) peptides of Ag85B and Rv2031c, containing HLA-A2 restricted epitopes.

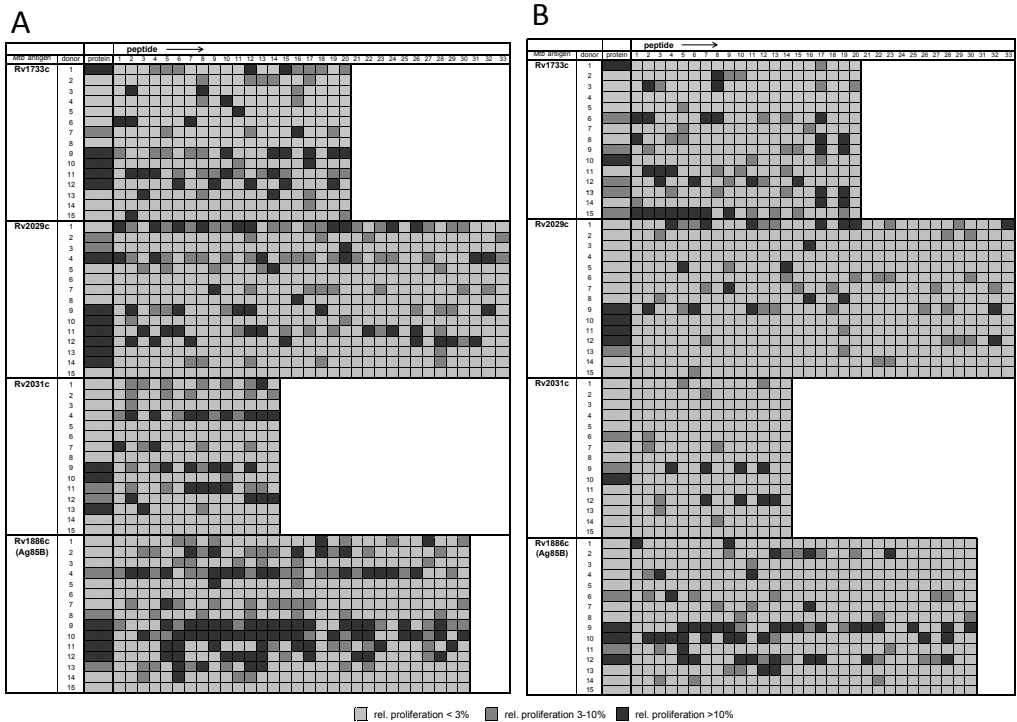


Figure 4. Proliferative CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses to *Mtb* DosR antigen epitopes among PPD⁺ individuals. PBMCs of 15 PPD⁺ donors were stimulated with either *Mtb* DosR antigen protein, corresponding single peptides or control antigen and peptides of Ag85B. Relative proliferation of (A) CD4⁺ and (B) CD8⁺ T cells is indicated in grey tones. Relative proliferation was calculated as follows; $((\Delta \text{ geometric mean sample} - \Delta \text{ geometric mean control medium}) / (\Delta \text{ geometric mean PHA} - \Delta \text{ geometric mean control medium})) \times 100\% = \% \text{ of maximal proliferation}$. Light grey; less than 3% proliferation, grey; between 3 and 10% proliferation, dark grey; over 10% proliferation. A relative proliferation of $\geq 10\%$ was considered positive.

A substantial number of peptides was recognized by CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells for Rv1733c (CD4⁺: 17/20 (10.1-76.9%) CD8⁺: 12/20 (10.4-100%)), Rv2029c (CD4⁺: 25/33 (10.4-100%) CD8⁺: 14/33 (10.3-66.6%)), Rv2031c (CD4⁺: 12/14 (10.2-53.8%) CD8⁺: 5/14 (11.3-42.7%)) and Ag85B (CD4⁺: 28/30 (10.1-75.3%) CD8⁺: 25/30 (10.9-97.7%)). Some peptides were recognized by CD4⁺ T cells from more than one third of the donors (e.g. 6/15 donors in case of Ag85B peptides 9 and 13, and 5/15 for Ag85B peptides 5, 6), whereas other peptides were recognized by CD4⁺ T cells in 4/15 donors, such as Rv1733c peptide 2 and Ag85B peptides 10, 12, 16 and 22. CD8⁺ T-cell responses were particularly observed against Rv1733c and Ag85B, these responses were found in four to five donors; Rv1733c peptides 17 (5/15), 2 and 19 (4/15), and Ag85B peptides 5 and 13 (4/15). Notably, some peptides were recognized by both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells (Rv1733c peptide 2, Ag85B peptides 5 and 13). Table 2 shows the cumulative epitope recognition map for both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in response to all tested proteins and peptides for all donors

tested. Interestingly, the results suggest enrichment of epitopes in certain immunogenic regions, for example Rv1733c₍₁₋₄₀₎, Rv1733c₍₁₆₁₋₂₀₀₎ and Ag85B₍₈₁₋₁₈₀₎, which harbour Rv1733c peptides 1-3, 17-19 and Ag85B peptides 5-14.

The above-described *Mtb* DosR antigen-encoded peptide epitopes were recognized by donors with varying HLA-genotypes. Many of the *in vitro* responses given in Figure 4A and B matched with *in silico* epitope motif searches for the relevant HLA-genotypes (data not shown) [41]. This suggests that responses to *Mtb* dosR-regulon-encoded antigens occur in a wide range of HLA backgrounds. In order to better characterize the molecular interactions of *Mtb* DosR antigenic epitope presentation, we examined peptide recognition in the context of the highly frequent HLA-A*0201 genotype (New allele frequency database: <http://www.allelefrequencies.net> [42]) and found that Rv1733c_{p181-189} specific CD8⁺ T cells were able to lyse peptide loaded and endogenously processed Rv1733c-antigen loaded target cells in the context of HLA-A*0201 molecules (Supplementary Figure S2A and S2B).

Table 2. Cumulative epitope recognition of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells to *Mtb* antigens and corresponding peptides

		peptide																																
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
<i>Mtb</i> antigen	T-cell subset	protein																																
Rv1733c	CD4	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	CD8	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Rv2029c	CD4	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	CD8	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Rv2031c	CD4	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	CD8	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Rv1886c (Ag85B)	CD4	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	CD8	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

■

≤ 1 responder

■

2 responders

■

3 responders

■

4 responders

■

≥ 5 responders

Discussion

We have proposed that *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens [7] that are expressed by *Mtb* during *in vitro* conditions mimicking intracellular infection represent rational targets for TB vaccination. Immune responses to *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens are prominently found in latently infected individuals, and are associated with latent *Mtb* infection (LTBI) in several ethnically and geographically distinct populations [7;11;13]. Additional work showed that the *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigen Rv2628 was strongly recognized by individuals with remote *Mtb* infection [13;14]. Thus far, the precise mechanisms and T-cell subsets responsible for the responses against *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens have not been studied in detail; and virtually all studies have relied on measuring IFN- γ production by polyclonal cells. Here we report peptide reactivity and memory phenotypes of *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigen-specific T cells in long-term LTBI, and moreover, document a large series of specific peptide epitopes recognized by specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells.

Three *Mtb* DosR antigens, Rv1733c, Rv2029c and Rv2031c (HspX, α -crystallin) were tested in this study. Strong *Mtb* DosR antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ polyfunctional T-cell responses were detected in ltLTBIs. The highest responses were observed among single cytokine-producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subsets (either TNF- α ⁺, IL-2⁺ or IFN- γ ⁺, depending on the stimulus) followed by double producing CD4⁺ and particularly CD8⁺ T cells. Of interest, the most frequent multiple cytokine-producing T cells were IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells. These cells were further characterized as effector memory (CCR7⁻ and CD45RA⁻) or effector (CCR7⁻ and CD45RA⁺) T cells, which have the ability to perform immediate effector functions. This is compatible with an important role for CD8⁺ T cells in *Mtb* infection [43;44].

Mtb antigen specific polyfunctional T cells have been studied intensely the last few years, both in vaccination and in observational studies in *Mtb* infected individuals [25-36;45]. There is currently no consensus whether polyfunctional T cells represent a marker of protective immunity or of disease activity. The vaccine MVA85A (recombinant replication-deficient vaccinia Ankara, expressing Ag85A) induced polyfunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells producing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 as well as IFN- γ and TNF- α in mice, which correlated with TB protection [26]. This vaccine also induced increased CD4⁺ T cells expressing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 in humans when given as a booster to previous BCG vaccination [27;28]. Similar results were reported following human vaccination with the BCG booster AERAS-402 (recombinant replication-deficient Adenovirus (Ad35) virus, expressing a polyprotein of Ag85A, Ag85B and TB10.4) [29]. Finally, mice vaccinated with hybrid subunit vaccines H1 (Ag85-ESAT6) and H56 (H1+Rv2660) also had high numbers of triple cytokine-producing CD4⁺ T cells [30;31]. However, observational studies in humans have associated polyfunctional CD4⁺ T cells with TB disease [32;33]. Although limited information is available on *Mtb*-specific polyfunctional CD8⁺ T cells, two of our recent studies showed that double- and single-producing CD8⁺ T cells are prominent in latently *Mtb*-infected individuals and

cured TB patients and that IFN- γ ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD8⁺ T cells are a biomarker of protective host defense against *Mtb* [34;35]. Moreover, no difference in polyfunctional CD4⁺ T-cell profiles could be identified between BCG-vaccinated children from a high endemic area that either developed TB or did not, indicating that polyfunctional T cells are not a biomarker of BCG-induced protection against TB [45]. In our study here we show the presence of mostly single and double positive T cells, the latter mainly present in CD8⁺ T cells, supporting previous findings that single and double positive T cells are prominent in LTBI [32;35]. This suggests that these double and single cytokine-producing T cells play a significant role in *Mtb* immunity, although their precise nature and mechanisms of action requires more detailed studies.

While most studies on polyfunctional T cells have focused on highly expressed *Mtb* early phase proteins such as ESAT6 and Ag85B, instead, we here have analyzed *Mtb* antigens that are expressed during dormancy. It remains possible that antigens expressed during different phases of infection may preferentially induce different patterns of single, double and polyfunctional T cells.

A striking observation was the wealth of epitopes that could be identified in *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens, in accordance with the significant immunogenicity of *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens in a wide variety of HLA backgrounds [46]. The donors used to detect single peptide responses were anonymous Dutch blood bank donors. Although we have no precise information about their mycobacterial exposure status, we have shown previously that over 50% of blood bank donors respond to PPD; furthermore, responses to *Mtb* DosR antigens were also observed in nontuberculous mycobacteria-exposed donors, probably due to the high conservation of these antigens [47].

Within several *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens highly immunogenic regions could be identified and a substantial number of peptides elicited both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses. Although HLA-class I presented peptides are typically 8-11 amino acids long, whereas HLA-class II ligands can be between 10-25 amino acids [41;48;49], we nevertheless found efficient CD8⁺ T-cell responses using 20-mers and confirmed Rv1733c-specific lysis of target cells by Rv1733c_{p181-189}-specific CD8⁺ T cells. It has been suggested that apoptosis, induced by the cytotoxic activity of CTL, can inhibit *Mtb* growth or even kill *Mtb* bacteria [50-52]. Granulysin may play a role in this mycobactericidal activity [53]. In addition, vaccine-induced CD8⁺ T cells in mice indeed can reduce bacterial load *in vivo* [54]. Again, this suggests a protective role for CD8⁺ T cells in *Mtb* infection.

Our 6-10 day incubation period may have allowed internalization and processing of peptides for HLA-class I presentation or allowed cross-presentation via alternative antigen presentation pathways [55;56]. Peptides appeared to be more sensitive tools for detecting CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T-cell responses compared to recombinant proteins; this is likely due to the preprocessed nature of peptides, facilitating highly efficient antigen presentation. Second, peptides were present at much higher molar concentrations since proteins and peptides were tested at 10 μ g/ml, regardless of their molecular mass. The lack of competition for processing, with otherwise dominant epitopes

in recombinant proteins, may also have permitted identification of subdominant epitopes using peptides. Thus, peptide-based epitope mapping also offers the potential to elucidate subdominant epitopes, which might be exploited in designing improved vaccines by inducing immunity to a broader epitope repertoire than would be seen following natural infection or protein vaccination [57;58]. Of note, previous work has shown the efficacy of vaccines containing subdominant epitopes in protection against infection with *Mtb* [59] .

In conclusion, we report the presence of *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded peptide antigen-specific single and double functional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses in hLTBIs. We show that the majority of multiple cytokine-producing T cells comprise IFN- γ ⁺ TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells; these cells were characterized as mainly effector memory or effector T cells. Furthermore, we describe a large series of new peptide epitopes expressed by *Mtb* DosR-regulon-encoded antigens, which are recognized by CD4⁺ and/or CD8⁺ T cells of PPD⁺ donors. These results significantly enhance our understanding of the human immune response to *Mtb* phase-dependent antigens in long-term control of infection, and pave the way for designing *Mtb* DosR antigen and/or peptide-based vaccination approaches to TB.

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Supplementary data

Results

The peptides recognized by HLA-A2 positive donors were subjected to further *in silico* minimal epitope motif searches in the context of HLA-A2 to select the precise epitopes embedded in the recognized 20-mer peptides. 25 candidate epitopes were identified and subsequently synthesized as 9-mer peptides. Their ability to bind HLA-A2 was measured using an HLA-A2 binding assay which resulted in a set of epitopes that had an intermediate or high binding affinity ($IC_{50} < 10 \mu M$) for HLA-A*0201 and epitopes that had low ($IC_{50} > 10 \mu M$) or no measurable ($IC_{50} > 100 \mu M$) affinity, this despite high prediction scores and *in vitro* CD8⁺ T-cell recognition of the corresponding 20-mer peptide (Table S2). In addition to the binding assay, all 25 candidate HLA-A2 epitopes were tested in a lymphocyte stimulation test to examine their recognition in the context of HLA-A2 molecules. Five HLA-A2 candidate peptides were recognized solely by HLA-A2⁺ but not HLA-A2⁻ donors as assessed by CFSE proliferation (Table S2).

A polyclonal CD8⁺ T-cell line directed against Rv1733c_{p181-189} and Rv2031c_{p96-104} was generated from an HLA-A2 positive donor that responded to both Rv1733c_{p181-189} and Rv2031c_{p96-104} epitopes. Effector CD8⁺ T cells showed specific peptide dependent lysis of allogenic EBV-BLCLJY target-cells (HLA-A*0201) when pulsed with peptide Rv1733c_{p181-189} (but not with Rv2031c_{p96-104}). Killing was observed at different effector-to-target ratios (E: T) (Figure S2A). CD8⁺ T cells also recognized and lysed EBV-BLCLJY target cells that had been transduced with a plasmid encoding Rv1733c, while not recognizing EBV-BLCLJY target cells similarly transduced with control plasmid (Figure S2A). Specific peptide dependent lysis of EBV-BLCLJY target cells loaded with HLA-candidate epitopes Rv1733c_{p181-189} could be inhibited partly (~30 %) by the addition of a pan anti-HLA-class I antibody whereas no decrease in lysis was observed following addition of pan anti-HLA-class II antibody (Figure S2B). As expected, the use of allogeneic EVB-BLCL target cells in combination with polyclonal effector cells resulted invariably in some background activity, even in such short term assays (5-35 % lysis of control targets). Nevertheless, peptide dependent lysis was clearly evident. Collectively these results show that CD8⁺ T cells can (i) recognize *Mtb* dosR antigen peptide Rv1733c_{p181-189} presented by HLA-A*0201 restricted target cells and (ii) lyse peptide loaded- and endogenously processed antigen loaded- target cells in the context of HLA-A*0201 molecules. These results further document the presence of functional *Mtb* dosR regulon encoded epitopes for human CD8⁺ T cells in the context of HLA class I molecules.

Materials and methods

Generation of CD8⁺ T-cell lines. CD8⁺ T-cell line was generated from PBMC from an HLA-A2⁺ TB patient (HLA-A2, A3, and DR11) that was directed against Rv1733c_{p181-189} and Rv2031c_{p96-104} peptides. Lines were generated using (autologous) dendritic cells (DC) as antigen presenting cell (APC) as previously described [60].

Chromium release assay. EBV-BLCL JY (HLA-A*0201, -B7, -Cw7), EBV-BLCL JY-Rv1733c-GFP (EBV-BLCL JY transduced with an expression vector encoding the *Mtb dosR* gene Rv1733c and the GFP marker [61;62] and EBV-BLCL JY-GFP (EBV-BLCL JY transduced with an empty control vector encoding GFP only) were used as target cells and incubated at 37°C for 1 hr with 0.1 µCi Na₂⁵¹CrO₄ (Amersham, United Kingdom), washed, and plated in triplicate in 96-well round-bottom plates (2500 cells/well). Effector CD8⁺ T cells were added in different effector-to-target (E:T) ratios, 12:1, 25:1 and 50:1 together with either medium, peptide (25 µg/ml), or 5% Triton X-100 and with or without pan HLA-class I or HLA-class II antibodies. After five hours the supernatants were harvested, and the percentage lysis was calculated as follows: [(release - spontaneous release)/(maximum release- spontaneous release)] * 100%.

Table S1A. Overlapping peptide set of *Mtb dosR* antigen Rv1733c

peptide number	dosR antigen Rv1733c aa sequence	position start-end
1	MIATTRDREGATMITFRLRLKK	1-20
2	ATMITFRLRLPCRTILRVFSKK	11-30
3	PCRTILRVFSRNPLVRGTDRLKK	21-40
4	RNPLVRGTDRLVAVVMLLAVKK	31-50
5	LEAVVMLLAVTVSLLTIPFAKK	41-60
6	TVSLLTIPFAAAAGTAVQDSKK	51-70
7	AAAGTAVQDSRSHVYAHQAQKK	61-80
8	RSHVYAHQAQTRHPATATVIKK	71-90
9	TRHPATATVIDHEGVIDSNTKK	81-100
10	DHEGVIDSNTTATSAPPRTKKK	91-110
11	TATSAPPRTKITVPAWVVNKK	101-120
12	ITVPAWVVNGIERSGEVNAKK	111-130
13	GIERSGEVNAKPGTKSGDRVKK	121-140
14	KPGTKSGDRVGIWVDSAGQLKK	131-150
15	GIWVDSAGQLVDEPAPPARAKK	141-160
16	VDEPAPPARAIADAALAALGKK	151-170
17	IADAALAALGLWSVAVAGKK	161-180
18	LWLSVAVAGALLALTRAILKK	171-190
19	ALLALTRAILIRVRNASWQHKK	181-200
20	IRVRNASWQHIDSLFCTQRKK	191-210

Table S1B. Overlapping peptide set of *Mtb* dosR antigen Rv2029c

peptide	dosR antigen Rv2029c	position
number	aa sequence	start-end
1	MTEPAAWDEGKPRIITLTMNKK	1-20
2	KPRIITLTMPALDITTSVDKK	11-30
3	PALDITTSVDVVRPTEKMRCKK	21-40
4	VVRPTEKMRCGAPRYDPGGGKK	31-50
5	GAPRYDPGGGINVARIVHVKK	41-60
6	GINVARIVHVLGGCSTALFPKK	51-70
7	LGGCSTALFPAGGSTGSLMKK	61-80
8	AGGSTGSLLMALLGDAGVPFVK	71-90
9	ALLGDAGVPFRVIPIAASTRKK	81-100
10	RVIPIAASTRESFTVNESRTKK	91-110
11	ESFTVNESRTAKQYRFVLPQKK	101-120
12	AKQYRFVLPQPSLTVAEQEQKK	111-130
13	PSLTVAEQEQCLDELRGAAAKK	121-140
14	CLDELRGAAASAAFFVASGSKK	131-150
15	SAAFFVASGSLPPGVAADYYKK	141-160
16	LPPGVAADYYQRVADICRRSKK	151-170
17	QRVADICRRSSTPLILDTSGKK	161-180
18	STPLILDTSGGGLQHISSGVKK	171-190
19	GGLQHISSGVFLKASVRELKK	181-200
20	FLLKASVRELRECVGSELLTKK	191-210
21	RECVGSELLTEPEQLAAAEKK	201-220
22	EPEQLAAAEHLIDRGRAEVVKK	211-230
23	LIDRGRAEVVVSLGSQGALKK	221-240
24	VVSLGSQGALLATRHASHRFKK	231-250
25	LATRHASHRFSSIPMTAVSGKK	241-260
26	SSIPMTAVSGVGAGDAMVAAKK	251-270
27	VGAGDAMVAITVGLSRGWSKK	261-280
28	ITVGLSRGWSLIKSVRLGNAKK	271-290
29	LIKSVRLGNAAGAAMLLTPGKK	281-300
30	AGAAMLLTPGTAACNRDDVEKK	291-310
31	TACNRDDVERFFELAAEPTKK	301-320
32	RFFELAAEPTEVGQDQYVWHKK	311-330
33	TEVGQDQYVWHPIVNPEASPKK	318-339

Table S1C. Overlapping peptide set of *Mtb* dosR antigen Rv2031c

peptide	dosR antigen Rv2031c	position
number	aa sequence	start-end
1	MATTLPVQRHPRSLFPEFSE	1-20
2	PRSLFPEFSELFAAFPSFAG	11-30
3	LFAAFPSFAGLRPTFDTRLM	21-40
4	LRPTFDTRLMRLEDEMKEGR	31-50
5	RLEDEMKEGRYEVRAELPGV	41-60
6	YEVRAELPGVDPDKVDIMV	51-70
7	DPDKVDIMVRDGGQLTIKAE	61-80
8	RDGQLTIKAEERTEQKDFDGR	71-90
9	RTEQKDFDGRSEFAYGSFVR	81-100
10	SEFAYGSFVRTVSLPVGAD	91-110
11	TVSLPVGADDDIKATYDKG	101-120
12	DDIKATYDKGILTVSVAVSE	111-130
13	ILTVSVAVSEGKPTKHIQI	121-140
14	SVAVSEGKPTKHIQIRSTN	125-144

Table S1D. Overlapping peptide set of *Mtb* early secreted antigen Ag85B (Rv1886c)

peptide	antigen Ag85B	position
number	aa sequence	start-end*
1	FSRPGLPVEYLQVPSPSMGR	41-60
2	LQVPSPSMGRDIKVQFQSGG	51-70
3	DIKVQFQSGGNNSPAVYLLD	61-80
4	NNSPAVYLLDGLRAQDDYNG	71-90
5	GLRAQDDYNGWDINTPAFEW	81-100
6	WDINTPAFEWYYQSGLSIVM	91-110
7	YYQSGLSIVMPVGGQSSFYS	101-120
8	PVGGQSSFYSDWYSPACGKA	111-130
9	DWYSPACGKAGCQTYKWETF	121-140
10	GCQTYKWETFLTSELPQWLS	131-150
11	LTSELPQWLSANRAVKPTGS	141-160
12	ANRAVKPTGSAAIGLSMAGS	151-170
13	AAIGLSMAGSSAMILAAYHP	161-180
14	SAMILAAYHPQQFIYAGSL	171-190
15	QQFIYAGSLSALLDPSQGMG	181-200
16	ALLDPSQGMGPSLIGLAMGD	191-210
17	PSLIGLAMGDAGGYKAADMW	201-220
18	AGGYKAADMWGPSSDPAWER	211-230
19	GPSSDPAWERNDPTQQIPKL	221-240
20	NDPTQQIPKLVANNT #	231-245
21	QIPKLVANNTRLWVY #	236-250
22	VANNTRLWVYCGNGT #	241-255
23	VANNTRLWVYCGNGTPNELG	241-260
24	CGNGTPNELGGANIPAEFLE	251-270
25	GANIPAEFLENFVRSSNLKF	261-280
26	NFVRSSNLKFQDAYNAAGGH	271-290
27	QDAYNAAGGHNAVFNFPPNG	281-300
28	NAVFNFPPNGTHSWEYWGAQ	291-310
29	THSWEYWGAQLNAMKGDLS	301-320
30	YWGAQLNAMKGDLSLQSLGAG	306-325

15-mers, 10 aa overlap

* sequence Ag85B consists of 325 aa. First 40 aa is leader sequence;

not tested in study. Here, start of aa at position 41

Table S2. List of *Mtb* dosR candidate HLA-A2 epitopes

<i>Mtb</i> dosR antigen	epitope sequence ^a	start aa	end aa	score <i>in silico</i> prediction ^a	K_D <IC50> μ M ^b	ELISA response ^c	CFSE proliferation ^d
Rv1733c	TRHPATATV	81	89	18	> 250	-	-
	HVYAHQAQT	73	81	11	5,5	+	-
	QAQTRHPAT	78	86	10	> 250	+	-
	GLWLSVAAV	170	178	29	0,11	+	-
	AALGLWSLV	167	175	24	3	-	-
	IADAALAAAL	161	169	23	2,8 - 3,4	+	+
	ALLALTRAI	181	189	26	0,42	+	+
	LTRAILIRV	185	193	20	53	+	-
	AILIRVRNA	188	196	20	2,8	+	+
Rv2029c	ELAAEPTEV	314	322	21	1,8	+	-
	TEVGQDQYV	320	328	12	> 250	-	-
Rv2031c	AYGSFVRTV	94	102	19	13	-	-
	GSFVRTVSL	96	104	18	59	+	-
	RTVSLPVG A	100	108	12	2,5	+	-

^a, Epitope motif scores and candidate epitope sequences are obtained from www.syfpeithi.de.^b, control peptide (cold peptide) in binding assay had a K_D of 0.006^c, positive IFN- γ response to candidate epitope: +, positive responses exclusively found in HLA-A2* (heterozygous) donors (n=11); -, positive responses found in donors with different HLA-A alleles (n=5).^d, CD8⁺ T-cell proliferation following stimulation with candidate epitope (% proliferating CD8⁺ cells): +, positive responses exclusively found in HLA-A2* (heterozygous) donors. When % proliferating CD8⁺ cells was > [medium + 3*SD] it was considered positive.

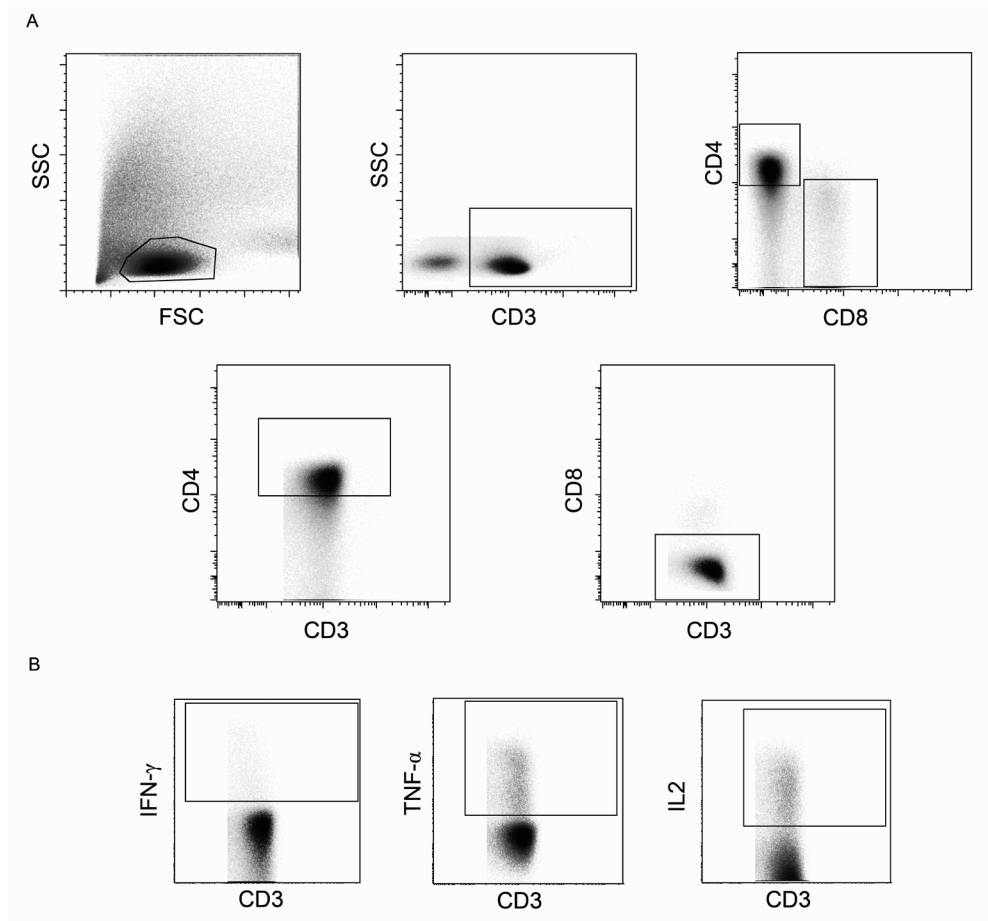


Figure S1. Multi-parameter flow cytometry analysis. The gating strategy of CD4⁺ T cells from one donor in response to PPD as a representative of all analyzed CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell populations. Lymphocytes were gated using the forward scatter (FSC) and side scatter (SSC) profile. CD3 positive lymphocytes were then plotted against CD4 and CD8. CD3⁺CD4⁺ T-cell populations were plotted against CD8 to obtain the CD3⁺CD4⁺CD8⁺ T-cell population (CD4⁺ T cells) (A). The same approach was used for the selection of CD3⁺CD8⁺CD4⁺ T cells (CD8⁺ T cells). Subsequently, IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 producing T cells were gated (B). Cytokine and surface marker combinations produced and expressed by single, double and polyfunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were further analyzed using Boolean gating.

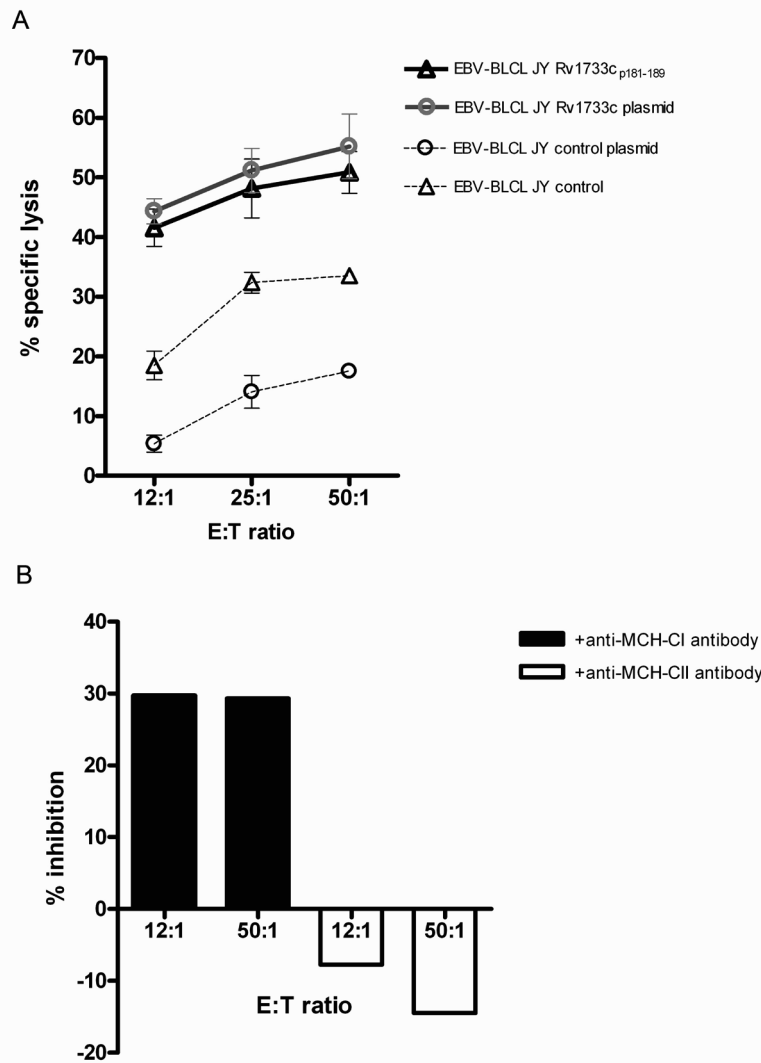


Figure S2. Cytolytic activity of a CD8⁺ polyclonal T-cell line against the candidate HLA-A2 restricted *Mtb* epitope Rv1733c_{p181-189}. The results show specific recognition of peptide epitope Rv1733c_{p181-189} by CD8⁺ T cells when peptide was loaded onto EBV-BLCL JY target cells (compared to medium control). CD8⁺ T cells also recognized EBV-BLCL JY target cells that had been transduced with an expression plasmid encoding Rv1733c, thus facilitating endogenous expression and presentation of Rv1733c in the context of HLA-A*0201. In contrast, EBV-BLCL JY target cells which were transduced with an empty plasmid (A) were not efficiently killed. Specific lysis of EBV-BLCL JY target cells loaded with Rv1733c_{p181-189} could be inhibited partly by addition of anti-HLA-Class-I antibody but not by addition of anti-HLA-Class-II antibody (B). The % specific lysis was calculated as follows [(release-spontaneous release)/(maximum release-spontaneous release)] x 100%.

CHAPTER 4

An unbiased genome-wide *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* gene expression approach to discover antigens targeted by human T cells expressed during pulmonary infection

Susanna Commandeur¹, Krista E. van Meijgaarden¹, Corine Prins¹, Alexander V. Pichugin², Karin Dijkman¹, Annemieke H. Friggen¹, Kees L. M. C. Franken¹, Gregory Dolganov³, Igor Kramnik², Gary K. Schoolnik³, Fredrik Oftung⁴, Gro Ellen Korsvold⁴, Annemieke Geluk¹ and Tom H. M. Ottenhoff¹

¹*Department of Infectious Diseases, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands;* ²*Department of Immunology and Infectious Diseases, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, USA;* ³*Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, USA;* ⁴*Department of Bacteriology and Immunology, Division of Infectious Disease Control, Norwegian Institute of Public health, Oslo, Norway*

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Abstract

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (*Mtb*) is responsible for almost 2 million deaths annually. *Mycobacterium bovis* bacillus Calmette-Guérin, the only vaccine available against tuberculosis (TB), induces highly variable protection against TB, and better TB vaccines are urgently needed. A prerequisite for candidate vaccine antigens is that they are immunogenic and expressed by *Mtb* during infection of the primary target organ, that is, the lungs of susceptible individuals. In search of new TB vaccine candidate antigens, we have used a genome-wide, unbiased antigen discovery approach to investigate the *in vivo* expression of 2170 *Mtb* genes during *Mtb* infection in the lungs of mice. Four genetically related but distinct mouse strains were studied, representing a spectrum of TB susceptibility controlled by the *supersusceptibility to TB 1* locus. We used stringent selection approaches to select *in vivo*-expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) genes and analyzed their expression patterns in distinct disease phenotypes such as necrosis and granuloma formation. To study the vaccine potential of these proteins, we analyzed their immunogenicity. Several *Mtb* proteins were recognized by immune cells from tuberculin skin test-positive, ESAT6/CFP10-responsive individuals, indicating that these antigens are presented during natural *Mtb* infection. Furthermore, TB patients also showed responses towards IVE-TB antigens, albeit lower than tuberculin skin test-positive, ESAT6/CFP10-responsive individuals. Finally, IVE-TB antigens induced strong IFN- γ^+ /TNF- α^+ CD8 $^+$ and TNF- α^+ /IL-2 $^+$ CD154 $^+$ /CD4 $^+$ T-cell responses in PBMC from long-term latently *Mtb* infected individuals. In conclusion, these IVE-TB antigens are expressed during pulmonary infection *in vivo*, are immunogenic, induce strong-T cell responses in long-term latently *Mtb*-infected individuals and may therefore represent attractive antigens for new TB vaccines.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) remains a leading cause of death, particularly in low and middle income countries [1]. One third of the world population is estimated to be latently infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*), and 3-10% of these will develop active TB during their lifetime. In HIV-infected individuals this proportion increases to 7-10% per life year. The emergence of multidrug-resistant, extensively drug-resistant and more recently also totally drug-resistant *Mtb* strains is further aggravating the TB epidemic. Currently, *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG) is the only available vaccine against TB. Although BCG vaccination can prevent severe childhood TB [2], it induces highly variable and inconsistent protection against pulmonary TB, the contagious form of TB in adults [3]. A more recently identified drawback of live BCG vaccination is the occurrence of disseminating BCG infections in HIV infected children [4], similar to severe BCG infections in individuals with genetic defects in the IL-12/IL-23/IFN- γ axis [5;6]. Thus, new TB vaccines are needed that are more effective and safer than BCG.

Understanding the intracellular behavior of *Mtb* during *in vivo* infection is important not only for understanding its infection biology, but it is also essential for the identification of possible novel TB vaccine candidate antigens. Infection stage and site-related differences in *in vivo* *Mtb* gene expression patterns can clearly affect the repertoire of potential *Mtb* antigens that is available for immune recognition in the primary infected organ, the lung. Antigens expressed in the lungs of *Mtb* infected, susceptible individuals could represent interesting new candidate antigens for TB vaccination, because they would induce responses capable of recognizing *in situ* *Mtb* infected cells.

Mtb has a remarkable ability to adapt to environmental changes by altering its metabolic state. A major environmental stress factor that *Mtb* is thought to encounter during host infection is the deprivation of oxygen and nutrients. *In vitro* hypoxia induces the expression of the *Mtb* dormancy regulon [7], which is controlled by the master regulator DosR (*Rv3133c*). The expression of the *Mtb* DosR regulon is also induced by low-dose NO, carbon monoxide exposure, and during infection in IFN- γ -activated macrophages [7;8]. Previously, we have reported broad human T-cell responses to *Mtb* DosR regulon-encoded antigens, and showed that responses to these antigens were prominent and associated with latent tuberculosis infection (LTBI) in ethnically and geographically distinct populations [9-13]. Other work has shown that nutrient limitation can induce the expression of specific *Mtb* genes such as *Rv2660c* [14]. This gene was found to encode a “starvation” antigen with promising long-term vaccine efficacy in preclinical TB infection models, both in mice [15] and in nonhuman primates [16]. The more recently described enduring hypoxic response (EHR) genes represent an alternative hypoxia-induced response model, which includes most of the DosR regulon-encoded genes complemented with an additional number (> 200) of *Mtb* stress response genes [17]. This model has also helped to identify new *Mtb* antigens [18].

A limitation of the models discussed above is that the identification of differentially regulated *Mtb* genes relies on *in vitro* models supposed to recapitulate relevant environmental stress conditions

that *Mtb* encounters upon host infection. First, however, many of these environmental stress factors may not be known as yet, limiting the value of such hypothesis-driven studies. Second, there may be additive or synergistic effects between multiple stress factors *in vivo* which may easily be missed when studied in isolation *in vitro*. Thirdly, and perhaps more importantly, certain key features of host response-induced stress cannot readily be recapitulated *in vitro*, including granuloma formation and TB necrosis, both being cardinal features of TB. To overcome these limitations several laboratories have started to analyze the gene expression profiles of intracellular *Mtb*, either in infected human or murine macrophages [8;19], in the infected tissue of different mouse strains (BALB/c, SCID [20]) or in artificial granuloma mouse models [21]. However, none of these mouse models developed granulomatous necrotic TB lesions [22]. We therefore have studied *Mtb* genome-wide gene expression patterns in mice strains carrying different genotypes of the *supersusceptibility to TB 1* (*sst1*) locus. This genetic locus is located on chromosome 1 and controls the progression of *Mtb* infection to severe and necrotic lesions in a lung-specific manner: C3HeB/FeJ (C3H) mice carrying the susceptible *sst1* allele develop TB pneumonia with strong inflammatory responses with exudation throughout the lung and early onset of massive necrosis, whereas C57BL/6J (B6) mice carrying the resistant *sst1* allele develop smaller, interstitial granulomas without necrotic lesions that control bacterial multiplication. C3H.B6-*sst1* congenic mice carrying the (B6-derived) resistant *sst1* locus on the C3H background showed increased survival after *Mtb* infection compared with the susceptible C3H mice, but less prominently than did the resistant B6 mice. Finally, *Mtb*-infected B6.C3H-*sst1* mice, carrying the susceptible C3H-*sst1* locus on the B6 background, develop robust granulomas that are fenced from the healthy tissue where lesions contain foamy macrophages and develop late-onset necrosis, resembling pulmonary TB in human adults. In contrast, the B6 strain does not display this phenotype, confirming the specific role for *sst1* in the control of cell death [23].

The *sst1* locus carries 22 genes, 1 of which was highly expressed in *Mtb* infected lungs of C3H.B6-*sst1* but not of hypersusceptible C3H mice. Interestingly, the expression of this gene, termed *intracellular pathogen resistance 1* (*Ipr1*), decreased *Mtb* multiplication in susceptible macrophages and induced a switch from necrotic to apoptotic cell death [24]. The lack of *Ipr1* expression in C3H-susceptible *sst1* locus is therefore responsible for the development of lung-specific necrosis upon *Mtb* infection [25]. The closest human homologue of *Ipr1* is *SP110b*. The expression of both *Ipr1* and *SP110b* is regulated by IFNs, indicating a role in immunity [26-28]. Genetic association studies performed in West Africa identified three polymorphisms in the *SP110b* gene that were associated with genetic susceptibility to TB [29]. However, a number of other studies performed in Ghana, Russia, South Africa and Indonesia did not replicate this finding [30-33]. A *SP110b* homologue was also identified in cattle, which correlated to susceptibility to *Mycobacterium avium* *ssp. paratuberculosis* [34].

These four (congenic) mouse models we have studied here show a spectrum of TB susceptibility which ranges from highly susceptible (C3H) to resistant (B6) mice, with the development of

necrotic lesions depending on the *sstI* locus and the modifying genetic background in which the locus is expressed. This mouse model replicates key features of human *Mtb* infection. In this study, we have taken advantage of this disease spectrum and 1) analyzed quantitative real-time expression patterns of all *Mtb* genes predicted to be the first gene in each operon, in the lungs of *Mtb*-infected mice, aiming to identify the *Mtb* genes that are highly or differentially expressed in the lung during *in vivo* infection (*in vivo*-expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) genes); 2) compared these *Mtb* gene expression patterns between susceptible (B6.C3H-*sstI* and C3H) and resistant (C3H.B6-*sstI* and B6) mouse strains in an attempt to correlate expression patterns to infection phenotype, and 3) selected a set of the most consistently expressed *Mtb* genes, produced these as recombinant proteins, and analyzed their immunogenicity in tuberculin skin test (TST)⁺ healthy, TB-affected individuals as well as long-term LTBI (ltLTBI) as a first step towards their validation as new TB vaccine candidate antigens.

Materials and methods

Mouse strains. C3HeB/FeJ (C3H) and C57BL/6J (B6), mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). Congenic C3H.B6-*sstI* and B6.C3H-*sstI* mouse strains carrying the resistant and susceptible alleles of the *sstI* locus, respectively, were generated as previously described [24;35]. Briefly, an ~ 20-cM segment of chromosome 1, containing the *sstI* locus, was introgressed in the opposite background strain via > 10 backcrosses. Mice were bred and housed under specific pathogen-free conditions at the Harvard Medical School of Public Health.

Bacterial strains. *Mtb* suspensions were used as previously described [36]. In short, *Mtb* (Erdman strain; Trudeau Institute, Saranac Lake, NY) cultures were grown to midlog phase in Middlebrook 7H9 medium (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ) ((10% oleic acid/albumin/dextrose/catalase (OADC; Difco), 0.05% Tween 80 (Sigma-Aldrich), and 0.5% glycerol (Sigma-Aldrich)). Bacteria were washed and stored at -80 °C. Prior to infection, bacteria were thawed, sonicated, and diluted in PBS to 10⁶ CFU/ml.

Infection of mice. Mice were infected by aerosol with 25 - 50 CFU *Mtb* using a Madison chamber (College of engineering shops at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI) with *n* = 2 per time point [24]. B6 and C3H mice were sacrificed both 6 and 9 weeks postinfection, whereas B6.C3H-*sstI* and C3H.B6-*sstI* mice were sacrificed 9 and 6 weeks postinfection, respectively. For the reactivation model, B6 and B6.C3H-*sstI* mice were infected i.v. via the tail vein with 5 × 10⁴ CFU *Mtb* per mouse as previously described [23]. Twelve weeks after challenge the mice were given isoniazid (INH) supplied via the drinking water (10 mg/100 ml) for 90 days. Mice were sacrificed 8 weeks after INH treatment withdrawal.

Genome-Wide *Mtb* transcription profiling via a Two-Step Multiplex Real-Time RT-PCR. Quantification of *Mtb* mRNA gene expression was performed as previously described [15;37;38]. The protocol is based on first-strand cDNA synthesis and controlled multiplex amplification of cDNAs, which is followed by individual real-time PCR (Taqman) quantification of Amplified cDNAs in a 384-well format using a LightCycler 480.

Total *Mtb* RNA was isolated from the infected mouse lung tissue by homogenization in TRIzol and bacillary disruption by bead beating (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH). Total RNA was isolated using RNeasy columns (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). RNA was precipitated, cleaned with two consecutive off-column RQ1 DNase digestions (Promega, Madison, WI) and resuspended in 50 μ l of RNase-free water (Applied Biosystems/Ambion, Austin, TX).

cDNA synthesis was performed using 50 ng total RNA, which was separated in reverse transcriptase (RT)⁺ and RT⁻ reactions to control for DNA contamination. Exo-resistant random primer (0.5 μ l), 1 μ l 10 mM dNTPs, and nuclease-free water was added and incubated for 3 minutes at 70 °C in a thermal cycler. Subsequently, 4 μ l 5X Maxima RT Buffer, 0.5 μ l RiboLock RNase inhibitor, 0.5 μ l Maxima RT enzyme (replaced by water for RT⁻ control samples) (all Fermentas, Gen Burnie, MD), and nuclease-free water were added and incubated at 50 °C for 1 hour, 95 °C for 2 minutes to inactivate, and then kept at 4 °C.

The generated cDNAs were further amplified via controlled multiplex preamplification with a mix of 2179 *Mtb* gene-specific primers (23.8 μ l primer mix: ~50 nM per amplification reaction), 2 μ l cDNA, 3 μ l 10X Advantage 2 buffer (Clontech, Mountain View, CA), 0.6 μ l 1X Advantage 2 Polymerase Mix (Clontech, CA), and 0.6 μ l 10 mM dNTPs (Fermentas) to a volume of 30 μ l (ftp://smd-ftp.stanford.edu/tbdb/rtpcr/taqman_oligos.fa) [15]. Sequences and design of PCR primer/probe sets are available at <http://genes.stanford.edu/technology.php> and <http://www.tbdb.org/rtpcrData.shtml>. A comparative control of 100 pg (2×10^4 gene copy number) genomic H37Rv DNA was also included. As an additional control, 25 *Mtb* reference genes were used to control for variation across amplification mixes. The gene primer sets were designed using Primer Express software (Perkin Elmer, Foster City, CA) to cover at least one gene of each predicted *Mtb* operon. Each reaction was heated at 95 °C for 5 minutes, followed by 15 cycles with 95 °C for 30 seconds, 60 °C for 20 seconds, and 68 °C for 1 minute. Previously we have validated conditions for multiplex PCR preamplification via linearity of amplification assay using all the genes used in the assay. We also validated all individual TaqMan assays from our collection for sensitivity and linearity before we started using them in gene expression profiling in this study.

Individual gene transcript quantification was carried out using TaqMan primer/probe sets (Biosearch Technologies). Quantitative real-time PCR mix contained 0.07 μ l preamplified cDNA, 2 μ l TaqMan primer/probe mix, 5 μ l 2X LightCycler 480 Probes Master Mix, and 2.93 μ l Probes Master PCR-grade water (Roche) to a final volume of 10 μ l. Reactions were heated at 95 °C for 5 minutes, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 30 seconds and 60 °C for 20 seconds. A cool down step of 40 °C for 30 seconds was run for one cycle. Cycle Threshold values were converted to relative

gene copy numbers (RGCN) based on logarithmic transformation/linear regression equations devised from calibration curves. The dataset is available at <http://www.tbdb.org/pubdata/tbdb/publications/Raw-Data-Harvard-Mice.xls>.

Correction for some biological heterogeneity between the different mice and mouse strains such as differences in bacterial load was not possible because these were inherent to the extensive differences in genetic TB susceptibility.

In vivo expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) gene selection procedure. First, genes were selected that were expressed in one data set (>1000 RGCN) but not in the other data set (+/-), thus selecting *Mtb* genes that are differentially expressed owing to genetic host susceptibility and/or infection phenotype variations.

The second approach was to select genes that were highly expressed in both data sets from two different mouse strains in the chosen comparison (+/+), selecting for *Mtb* genes that are expressed independent of the genetic makeup of the host. For this selection, the RGCN data were ranked from the highest to the lowest value and overlapping genes were selected from the top 100 highest expressed genes of both data sets. This number of 100 genes was arbitrarily chosen to limit the number of candidates to be analyzed further.

The third and last approach included genes that were expressed in data set 2 (>1000 RGCN) but not in data set 1 (-/+), following the same rationale as approach 1. Hence, approach 1 and 3 included differentially expressed genes. There was no number restriction limit (because fewer genes were identified compared with the second approach (+/+)) (Figure 1 and 2).

Recombinant proteins. Recombinant proteins were produced from the selected *Mtb* genes as described previously [39]. Briefly, *Mtb* genes were amplified by PCR from genomic H37Rv DNA and cloned by Gateway technology (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) in a bacterial expression vector containing a histidine tag at the N-terminus. Vectors were overexpressed in *Escherichia coli* BL21 (DE3) and purified. Size and purity of recombinant proteins were analyzed by gel electrophoresis and Western blotting with an anti-His Ab (Invitrogen) and an anti-*E. coli* polyclonal Ab (gift of Statens Serum Institute, Copenhagen, Denmark). Rv2380c, Rv2435c and Rv2737c proteins were prepared as two or three recombinant protein fragments owing to their large sizes (C, Middle (M), and N termini). Endotoxin contents were < 50 IU/ mg as tested using a *Limulus* Amebocyte Lysate assay (Cambrex, East Rutherford, NJ). All recombinant proteins were tested in lymphocyte stimulation assays to exclude antigen nonspecific T-cell stimulation and cellular toxicity using PBMC of *in vitro*-purified protein derivative of *Mtb*-negative healthy Dutch donors (Sanquin Blood Bank, Leiden, The Netherlands) [12;40-42]. Purified protein derivative of *Mtb* was purchased from Statens Serum Institute.

Mtb lysate. *Mtb* H37Rv organisms were grown to a late log phase in a culture flask at 37 °C and collected in a V-bottom shaped tube. The pellet was washed twice with PBS and heat killed for 30 minutes at 80 °C. The cell suspension was subsequently collected in a BioSpec tube containing 0.1-mm glass beads. The bacteria were disrupted using a Mini-BeadBeater (BioSpec Products). Concentrations of lysates were measured using the BCA assay (Thermo scientific Pierce).

Study subjects. One hundred and thirty-three donors were selected that responded to *Mtb*-purified protein derivative by TST (weak positive 5-11 mm ($n = 26$); positive ≥ 12 ($n = 90$); not determined ($n = 17$), ranging from 6 to 32 mm (average 16 mm)), and that had documented exposure to a TB index case ($n = 63$) and/or had traveled to high endemic countries ($n = 76$). TST⁺ individuals entered a follow-up study and at recruitment a QuantiFERON-TB Gold In-Tube test (QFT-GIT) was performed (Cellestis, Carnegie, VIC, Australia). The test was considered positive when there were ≥ 0.3 IU/ml. Blood samples were collected by venipuncture and PBMC isolated by standard Ficoll density gradient centrifugation using Leucosep[®] tubes (Greiner Bio-one, Alphen aan den Rijn, The Netherlands). *Mtb*-unexposed donors were included as healthy control (HC) donors ($n = 11$). PBMC from TST⁺ donors and treated TB patients ($n = 7$) were used in lymphocyte stimulation assays. PBMC from ltLTBI [41;42] ($n = 6$) were used for polychromatic flow cytometry assays. Informed consent was obtained prior to venipuncture. The study protocols (P07.048 and P207/99) were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Leiden University Medical Center and the Regional Committees for Medical and Health Research Ethics in Norway.

Whole blood assay (WBA). Blood was diluted 1:10 in AIM-V medium (Invitrogen, Breda, The Netherlands), incubated in 48-wells plates (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) and cultured with or without recombinant protein (10 µg/ml), PHA (2 µg/ml), or *Mtb* lysate (5 µg/ml) at 37°C, 5% CO₂. After 6 days supernatant was harvested and stored at -20 °C for use at a later stage.

Lymphocyte stimulation test. PBMC (1.5×10^5 /well) were cultured in triplicate in 96-well round-bottom plates (Nunc) and incubated with or without protein (10 µg/ml) in IMDM (Life Technologies/Invitrogen) containing 10% pooled human serum (Invitrogen) at 37 °C in 5% CO₂. After 6 days, supernatants were harvested, pooled, and stored at -20 °C for future use in IFN-γ ELISAs.

IFN-γ ELISA. IFN-γ concentrations in supernatants were measured with a standard ELISA technique (U-CyTech, Utrecht, The Netherlands). ELISA samples were tested in duplicate and the assay was performed according to the manufacturer's guidelines. Detection limit of the assay was set arbitrary at 20 pg/ml for whole blood assay (WBA) and 100 pg/ml for a lymphocyte stimulation test.

Flow cytometric analysis. PBMC ($1-2 \times 10^6$ per tube) were thawed and rested overnight and subsequently stimulated for 16 h with protein (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) in the presence of costimulatory Abs anti-CD28 and anti-CD49d (Sanquin and BD Biosciences, respectively). Brefeldin A (3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$; Sigma-Aldrich) was added after the first 4-6 h. Cells were stained with Live/Dead fixable violet dead cell stain (ViViD; Invitrogen) to discriminate between live and dead cells according to manufacturer's instructions. Cells were stained for 1 h at 4 °C with the following surface markers: anti-CD3 PE-Cy5 (BD Biosciences), anti-CD4 Texas Red (Caltag) and anti-CD8 V500 (BD Biosciences). Additionally, anti-CD14 Pacific Blue and anti-CD19 Pacific Blue (both Invitrogen) were included to select for CD14⁺ and CD19⁺ live cells. Intracellular staining was performed with anti-IFN- γ Alexa 700 (BD Pharmingen), anti-TNF- α PE-Cy7 (BD Biosciences), anti-IL-2 PE (BD Pharmingen), and CD154 APC-Alexa 780 (eBioscience) using the ADG Fix&Perm kit (An Der Grub Bio Research, Vienna, Austria). Data were acquired on a BD LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences) and analyzed using FlowJo version 7.6.5 (Tree Star, Ashland, OR). Single CD14⁺/CD19⁺/CD3⁺ live cells were gated to analyze CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ cytokine responses. Final antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subset populations all contained at least 200 events. For comparative purposes, medium background values were subtracted for each response in each donor.

Statistical analysis. Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism (version 5.1). A Mann-Whitney *U* test was used to analyze 1) the difference between cumulative IFN- γ responses for the ESAT6/CFP10 hybrid (E/C)⁺, E/C⁻ and HC individuals and 2) the difference between PHA-induced IFN- γ responses measured in E/C⁺ and E/C⁻ donors. A *p* value ≤ 0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Identification of IVE-TB genes in the lungs of genetically resistant and/or susceptible mice

To start identifying novel candidate *Mtb* antigens in an unbiased and *Mtb* genome-wide fashion, we analyzed the gene expression patterns of 2170 *Mtb* genes, most of which represent the first gene of each predicted *Mtb* operon, in the lungs of four different *Mtb* infected mouse strains (B6, C3H, C3H.B6-*sst1* and B6.C3H-*sst1*) that show a spectrum of TB susceptibility (Table I). The RGCN were determined using quantitative PCR [15]. This allows for absolute quantization of the level of transcripts per sample, because the data are normalized against a standard reference gene number copy (as described in *Materials and Methods*).

Table I. Mouse strains, genetic background and TB infection phenotypes

Mouse strain ^a	Genetic background	<i>Sst1</i> allele	Inflammation	Lung necrosis	Clinical TB correlate
C3H	C3H	Susceptible	+++	+ (early)	Caseous pneumonia
C3H.B6- <i>sst1</i>	C3H	Resistant	+++	-	Progressive interstitial granuloma without necrosis
B6.C3H- <i>sst1</i>	B6	Susceptible	++	+ (late)	Caseous granuloma
B6	B6	Resistant	+	-	Chronic persistent interstitial granuloma without necrosis

+, ++, and +++ indicate intensity of inflammation

^a Pichugin *et al.* (23) and Pan *et al.* (24)

In this IVE-TB gene selection screen we used the following criteria to select candidate genes for further analysis: first, we used the most strongly upregulated *Mtb* genes in all four analyzed mouse models. This group of genes includes genes that are expressed independently of the host susceptibility background. Second, we used *Mtb* genes specifically upregulated in either B6, C3H, B6.C3H-*sst1* or C3H.B6-*sst1*. The expression of these genes is influenced by the host genetic background and may therefore include genes whose expression is associated to particular TB disease characteristics such as granuloma formation and necrosis. The obtained RGCN of all four mouse models were independently compared with each other as visualized in Figure 1A. All four mouse models were infected with a low-dose aerosol *Mtb* inoculum. Additionally, a subset of B6.C3H-*sst1* was infected using a previously described TB relapse model to study features of gene expression during *Mtb* reactivation [23].

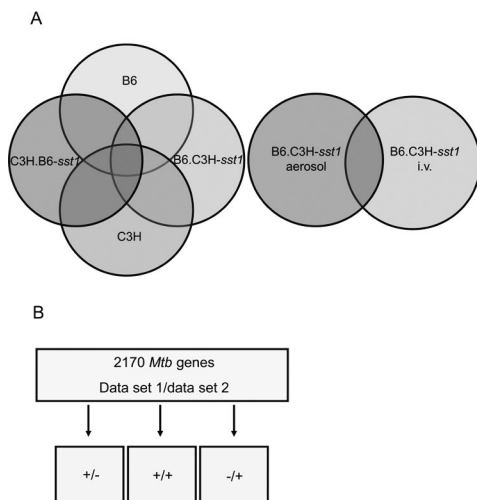


Figure 1. Overview of IVE-TB gene selection procedure. (A) The *Mtb* RGCN profiles of each mouse model were independently compared with each other. (B) Three gene selection procedures were used to select genes for each comparison: genes that were expressed in data set 1 (>1000 RGCN) but not in data set 2 (+/-); genes highly expressed in both data sets (top 100 highest expressed genes in both models and select overlapping genes) (+/+); and genes not expressed in data set 1 but expressed in data set 2 (>1000 RGCN) (-/+)(see also *Materials and Methods*).

Every individual *Mtb* gene's expression data (e.g., B6 versus C3H, B6 versus B6.C3H-*sst1*) was subjected to three different selection approaches as indicated in Figure 1B and described in detail in *Materials and Methods*. The gene selection results for each comparison are visualized in Figure 2 and Supplementary Table I (available online at <http://www.jimmunol.org/content/190/4/1659/suppl/DC1>). The results shown in Figure 2 were then used to select IVE-TB genes whose expression was associated with particular disease characteristics as indicated in Figure 3. These included 1) *Mtb* genes highly expressed independently of host genetic background (expressed in all four mouse models; these *Mtb* genes included *esx4* encoding ESAT6 and other *esx* genes); 2) *Mtb* genes expressed in association with necrosis (expressed in both C3H and B6.C3H-*sst1*, but not in B6 or C3H.B6-*sst1*); 3) *Mtb* genes expressed in association with severe necrotic infection (sn) or susceptibility (expressed in C3H, but not in B6, C3H.B6-*sst1* or B6.C3H-*sst1*); 4) *Mtb* genes expressed in association with dense granuloma development (only expressed in B6.C3H-*sst1* but not in C3H, B6 or C3H.B6-*sst1*); 5) *Mtb* genes expressed in association with diffuse granuloma development (expressed in C3H but not in B6.C3H-*sst1*, B6 or C3H.B6-*sst1*); 6) *Mtb* genes expressed in association with resistance (expressed in every more resistant mouse strain per comparison); 7) *Mtb* genes expressed in association with low inflammation (expressed in B6, but not in C3H.B6-*sst1*); 8) inflammation (expressed in C3H.B6-*sst1*, but not in B6) and 9) relapse (expressed in i.v. *Mtb* infected, INH treated B6.C3H-*sst1*, but not low-dose aerosol-infected B6.C3H-*sst1*). An overview of the resulting IVE-TB genes is presented in Supplementary Table II (available online at <http://www.jimmunol.org/content/190/4/1659/suppl/DC1>).

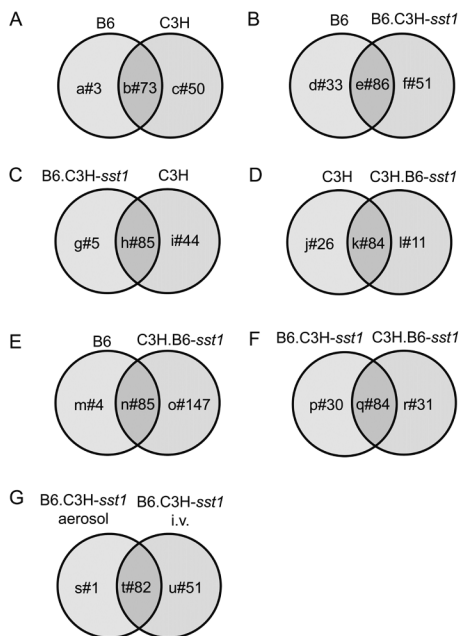


Figure 2. Selection of IVE-TB genes. Numbers of *Mtb* genes obtained after each comparison of two different mouse strains for every approach described in Figure 1 are shown in (A)-(G).

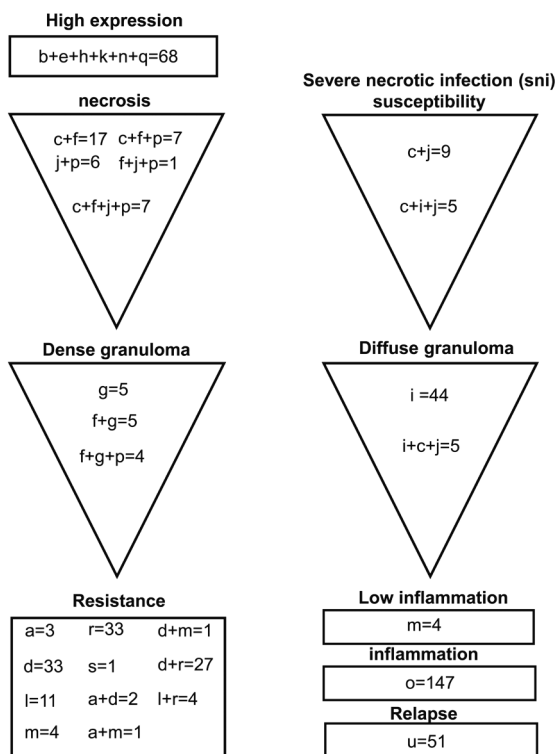


Figure 3. Selection of IVE-TB genes associated with particular TB disease characteristics.

Flowchart of analysis to identify IVE-TB genes related to TB disease phenotypes is shown. Letters in graphs refer to the specific selections indicated in Figure 2. *Mtb* genes highly expressed independent of host genetic background are presented in Figure 2A(b), 2B(c), 2C(h), 2D(k), 2E(n) and 2F(q). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with necrosis are presented in; Figure 2A(c), 2B(f), 2D(j), and/or 2F(p). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with severe necrotic infection or susceptibility are presented in; Figure 2A(c), 2D(j) and/or Figure 2C(i). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with dense granuloma are presented in Figure 2C(g), Figure 2B(f) and/or Figure 2F(p). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with diffuse granuloma are presented in Figure 2C(i), but also 2A(c) and 2D(j). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with resistance are presented in one or more of the following selections: Figure 2A(a), 2B(d), 2D(l), 2E(m) (although not related to the susceptible *ss1* locus), 2F(r) and/or 2G(s). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with low inflammation are presented in Figure 2E(m). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with inflammation are presented in Figure 2E(o). *Mtb* genes highly expressed in association with relapse are presented in Figure 2G(u).

Table II. Predicted function and classification of selected IVE-TB genes

Gene	Name	IVE-TB selection ^a	Selections ^a	function ^b	Category ^c	classification	Reference
Rv1284	Rv1284	high expression	b + e + h + k + n + q + t	Conserved hypothetical protein (carbonic anhydrase)	7	EHR/starvation	14,17,58
Rv2380c	mbtE	high expression	b + e + h + k + n + q + t	Peptide synthetase mbtE	1		21
Rv3515c	fadD19	high expressed sst1 ^s	h + q + t	Pprobable fatty acid-CoA ligase fadD19 (involved in lipid degradation)	1	EHR	17,21
Rv0079	Rv0079	necrosis and sni	c + f + j + p	Hypothetical protein	10	dosR	7,9,12,20,21
Rv2324	Rv2324	sni and relapse	c + j + u	Probable transcriptional regulator, asnC-family	9	EHR	17
Rv2737c	recA	necrosis and sni	c + f + j + p	Recombination protein recombinase A (recA; Mtb recA intein)	2		
Rv2838c	rbfA	sni, diffuse granuloma, and relapse	c + I + j + u	Probable ribosome-binding factor A (P15B protein)	2		
Rv3420c	rimI	sni, diffuse granuloma, and relapse	c + I + j + u	Ribosomal-protein-alanine acetyltransferase rimI	2		
Rv2034	Rv2034	inflammation	o	arsR-type repressor protein	9	EHR/starvation	14,17,20
Rv1956	Rv1956	resistance, diffuse granuloma, low inflammation, and relapse	d + I + j + m + u	Transcriptional regulator (possible antitoxin; TA operon with Rv1955)	0	EHR/starvation	14,17,21
Rv2225	panB	dense granuloma	f + g + p	Probable 3-methyl-2-oxobutanoate hydroxymethyltransferase (panB)	7		21
Rv2465c	rpIB	dense granuloma	f + g + p	Isomerase (ribose 5-phosphate isomerase)	7	EHR	17,2
Rv2982c	gpsA	resistance, inflammation, and relapse	l + o + r + u	Probable glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (gpdA2)	1		
Rv3353c	Rv3353c	relapse	u	Conserved hypothetical protein	10		
Rv1363c	Rv1363c	resistance	s	Possible membrane protein	3		
Rv2435c	Rv2435c	resistance and inflammation	l + o	Probable cyclase (adenylate or guanylate cyclase)	7		

^a In reference to Figure 2 and 3^b Available at: <http://genolist.pasteur.fr/TubercuList/> and www.tbddb.org^c TubercuList functional classification codes are available at <http://genolist.pasteur.fr/tubercuList/sni, Severe Necrotic Infection>

Immunogenicity of newly identified IVE-TB antigens

Further down selection of IVE-TB genes. The goal of the above selection of IVE-TB genes was to identify potentially interesting new vaccine candidate antigens. Thus, we next determined their immunogenicity. To this end, a number of *Mtb* genes were further selected that were either present in more than one group or were among the top number of genes in the IVE-TB selections performed (Table II). Some *Mtb* genes identified using our unbiased genome-wide approach were also identified in previous studies as environmental stress induced proteins [7;14;17].

A subsequent literature search revealed that almost all further selected IVE-TB proteins (14 of the 16) have been identified previously in *Mtb* proteomic studies, confirming the protein expression of the *Mtb* genes identified in our study [43-56] (Table III). Indeed, we observed that *Mtb*-infected C3H mice recognized most of the selected IVE-TB antigens as measured by antigen-specific IFN- γ production by splenocytes (Supplementary Figure 1). Furthermore, we analyzed the conservation of these IVE-TB proteins using protein BLAST searches on different *Mtb* strains as well as other mycobacterial species. This showed that the *Mtb* IVE-TB protein sequences are strongly conserved among all tested *Mtb*, *M. bovis* and *M. africanum* strains. Strong conservation was observed also for other mycobacterial strains (Table IV).

Table III. Identification of IVE-TB proteins in *Mtb*

Gene	Protein Name	Protein Identification	Protein Location				Essential <i>In Vitro</i>	Essential <i>In Vivo</i>
			Membrane/ Lipid Associated	Cytosol	CF	WCL		
Rv0079	Rv0079	48, 50, 51	x				no (52)	yes (56)
Rv1284	Rv1284	44-47, 50	x		x	x	yes (52)	yes (53)
Rv1363c	Rv1363c	44, 45	x			x	no (52)	
Rv1956	Rv1956	45				x	no (52, 54)	
Rv2034	Rv2034	44, 45	x				no (52)	
Rv2225	panB	45, 51	x			x	yes (52)	
Rv2324	Rv2324	44, 45	x			x	no (52)	
Rv2380c	mbtE	50, 51	x	x			probably yes (54)	
Rv2435c	Rv2435c						no (52)	
Rv2465c	rpIB	43-47	x		x	x	no (52)	
Rv2737c	recA	51					slow grow mutant (52)	
Rv2838c	rbfA	45		x		x	NT	
Rv2982c	gpsA	44, 45, 49, 50	x			x	no (52)	
Rv3353c	Rv3353c						no (52)	
Rv3420c	rimI	51	x				no (52)	
Rv3515c	fadD19	45, 48, 49	x			x	no (52, 54) yes (55)	

Note that locations of the proteins indicated may not be exclusive given limitations and difficulties in annotating exact protein localization (45)
CF, culture filtrate; NT, not tested; WCL, whole cell lysate

Table IV. IVE-TB protein sequence identity among mycobacterial strains

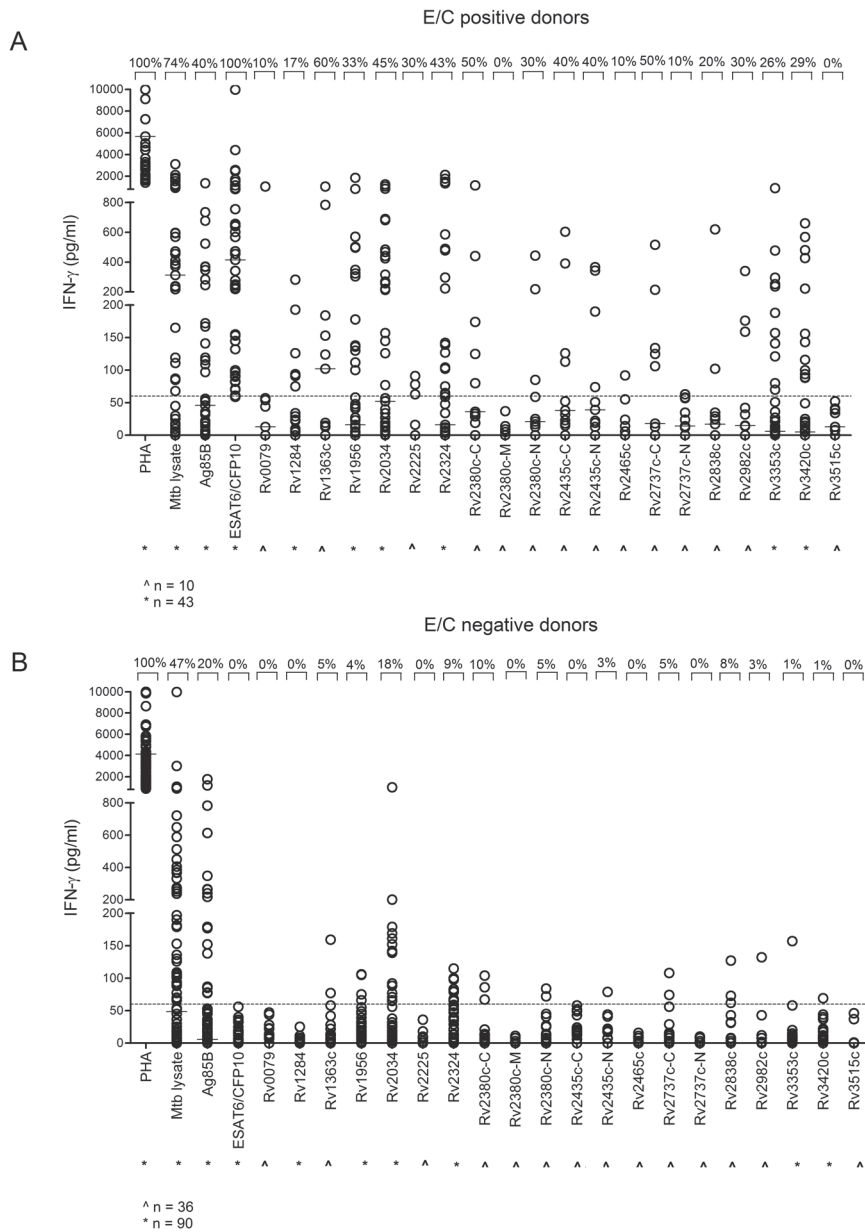
Mycobacterial species	Strain	Rv 0079	Rv 1284	Rv 1363c	Rv 1956	Rv 2034	Rv 2225	Rv 2324	Rv 2380c	Rv 2435c	Rv 2465c	Rv 2737c	Rv 2938c	Rv 2982c	Rv 3353c	Rv 3420c	Rv 3515c
<i>tuberculosis</i>	Erdmann	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<i>tuberculosis</i>	H37Rv	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<i>tuberculosis</i>	C	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	99	100	100	94
<i>tuberculosis</i>	Haarlem	100	100	100	100	99	ND	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	99
<i>tuberculosis</i>	F11	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100
<i>tuberculosis</i>	GDC1551	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100
<i>africanum</i>	GM041182	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	99	100	99	100	100	99
<i>bovis</i>	AF2122/97	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100
<i>bovis</i>	BCG	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	100	100
<i>avium</i>	paratuberculosis K-10	ND	80	74	ND	41	88	91	65	65	91	96	77	84	50	82	90
<i>avium</i>	104	ND	80	74	ND	41	87	89	65	65	91	96	77	40	51	82	90
<i>ulcerans</i>	Agy99	62	85	70	ND	39	86	83	43	60	90	96	81	86	65	82	90
<i>smegmatis</i>	Mc ² 155	33	79	58	ND	39	78	81	66	59	84	93	76	75	ND	67	83
<i>marinum</i>	M	63	85	72	ND	39	86	84	43	81	91	96	81	87	64	82	90
<i>leprae</i>	TN	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	82	ND	ND	32	89	61	80	77	ND	72	ND

Local BLAST protein sequence identities are available at: www.tbd.org and www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/

Recognition of IVE-TB proteins by TST⁺ positive donors. To assess the immunogenicity of the 16 selected IVE-TB proteins, recombinant proteins of the IVE-TB genes were generated and analyzed for the induction of IFN- γ responses in 133 TST⁺ individuals. Approximately one third of the TST⁺ individuals responded to *Mtb* specific E/C protein (32%, 61-9980 pg/ml). ESAT6 and CFP10 *Mtb*-specific proteins are frequently used as immunodiagnostic antigens to identify *Mtb* exposure [12]. One third of our population also responded to these diagnostic antigens (ESAT6, CFP10 complemented with TB7.7 (p4) peptides) using the commercial QFT-GIT. The responses in the QFT-GIT correlated very well with responses to our E/C protein measured in WBA (84%). Division of the group into WBA E/C⁺ and WBA E/C⁻ donors showed that 74% of the E/C⁺ donors responded to *Mtb* lysate (87-3112 pg/ml) and 40% to Ag85B antigen (97-735 pg/ml) (Figure 4A). Importantly, high levels of recognition of the newly identified *Mtb* proteins were seen within this population, with responses ranging from 10 to 60% of the donors. To identify the antigens that are well recognized, we first examined which ones were recognized by $\geq 25\%$ of the E/C⁺ donors. From all 20 proteins and protein fragments (derived from the 16 selected antigens) tested, 13 were recognized by $\geq 25\%$ ($n \geq 3$ of 10 and ≥ 11 of 43) of the donors. Six of 13 antigens induced only intermediate levels of IFN- γ (60-600 pg/ml) after stimulation, whereas high levels of IFN- γ were produced after stimulation with Rv1363c (102-1053 pg/ml), Rv1956 (100-1861 pg/ml), Rv2034 (77-1256 pg/ml), Rv2324 (63-2130 pg/ml), Rv2380c-C (80-1159 pg/ml), Rv3353c (70-899 pg/ml) and Rv3420c (88-660 pg/ml), representing the seven best recognized proteins.

Of the TST⁺ E/C⁻ donors still 47% responded to *Mtb* lysate and 20% to Ag85B (Figure 4B). Additionally, HC were analyzed for possible IVE-TB responses (Figure 4C). Most importantly, limited to no responses against the IVE-TB proteins were detected in the TST⁺ E/C⁻ and HC groups, demonstrating clear specificity of recognition, presumably linked to *Mtb* exposure.

To further verify that the IVE-TB antigens are specifically recognized by E/C⁺ donors, the cumulative IFN- γ response to the 20 tested antigens per individual was calculated, as described before [9]. A highly significant difference between the E/C⁺ and E/C⁻ population was observed ($p < 0.0001$). As expected, a significant difference was also observed between E/C⁺ and HC donors ($p = 0.049$) (Figure 5), confirming the association between antigen recognition and E/C test positivity. Interestingly, of the seven best recognized proteins, Rv3420c was the most discriminatory between the E/C⁺ ($\geq 25\%$) and E/C⁻ group ($\leq 1\%$) ($p < 0.0001$) and was not recognized by HC donors ($p = 0.016$), suggesting a possible role as *Mtb*-specific biomarker antigen in addition to ESAT6, CFP10, and TB7.7.



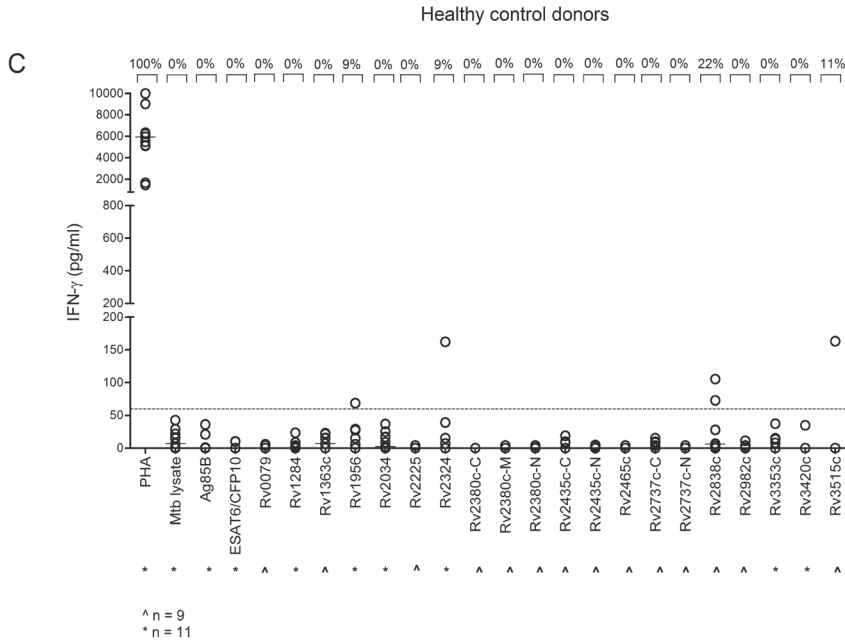


Figure 4. IFN- γ responses to IVE-TB antigens in E/C⁺ (A), E/C⁻ (B), and HC donors (C). A total of 43 E/C⁺ donors (A), 90 E/C⁻ donors (B) and 11 HC donors (C) were analyzed for their IFN- γ WBA responses to antigens and controls; the antigens were *Mtb* Rv1284, Rv1956, Rv2034, Rv2324, Rv3353c and Rv3420c. Ten E/C⁺ donors (A), 36 E/C⁻ donors (B) and 9 HC donors (C) were also analyzed for responses to *Mtb* antigens Rv0079, Rv1363c, Rv2225, Rv2380c, Rv2435c, Rv2465c, Rv2737c, Rv2828c, Rv2982c and Rv3515c IFN- γ . The proportion of responders for each antigen is indicated at the top of the graph. For comparative purposes, medium background values were subtracted for each response in each donor. Horizontal bars represent the median IFN- γ responses. The dotted line indicates the cut-off value for positivity, arbitrarily calculated as 3 x medium value.

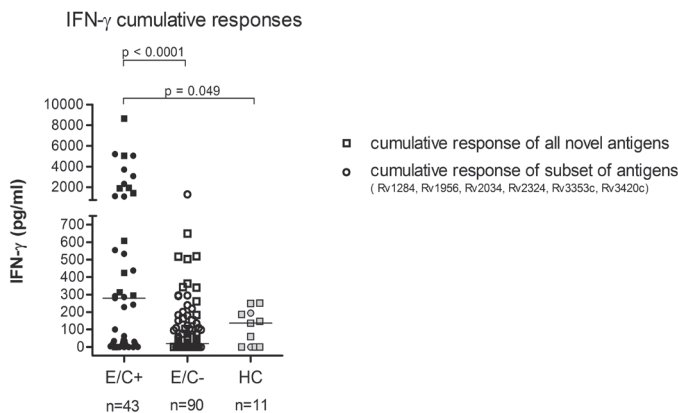


Figure 5. Cumulative IFN- γ responses induced by IVE-TB antigens, calculated per individual in the E/C⁺, E/C⁻ and HC groups. Cumulative IFN- γ responses to all 20 IVE-TB protein and protein fragments in E/C⁺ ($n = 43$), E/C⁻ ($n = 90$), and HC donors ($n = 11$). Squares indicate cumulative IFN- γ response of all 20 IVE-TB antigens, and circles indicate cumulative IFN- γ response of Rv1284, Rv1956, Rv2034, Rv2324, Rv3353c and Rv3420c antigens. Horizontal bars represent the median cumulative IFN- γ responses.

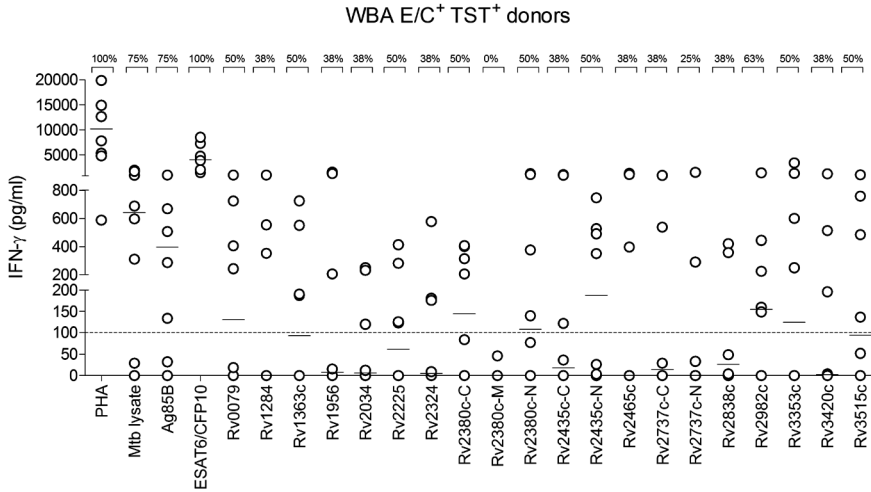
Recognition of IVE-TB proteins by PBMC from TB patients. We next investigated whether TB patients could also recognize these antigens. PBMC from WBA E/C⁺ TST⁺ donors (Figure 6A) and TB patients (Figure 6B) were therefore stimulated with the 20 proteins and protein fragments and IFN- γ production was measured. High IFN- γ responses (123-3391 pg/ml) to the IVE-TB antigens were observed in the PBMC cultures from the WBA E/C⁺ TST⁺ population, confirming the results obtained in the WBA assay above. Nine of the tested antigens were recognized by $\geq 50\%$ of the donors and eight antigens by 38% of the donors. Only one protein fragment was not recognized in this assay (Rv2380c-M). In contrast, seven of the tested IVE-TB antigens did not induce detectable IFN- γ production in PBMC from TB patients, whereas most of the IVE-TB antigens induced only low levels of IFN- γ compared with the WBA E/C⁺ TST⁺ individuals (107-1825 pg/ml). Only two antigens induced high levels of IFN- γ in the TB patients. Additionally, only one antigen was recognized by 50% of the TB patients, whereas the remainder of the antigens were recognized by relatively fewer TB patients (14-43%). Thus, IVE-TB antigens seem to be less immunogenic in TB patients than in TST⁺ individuals.

T-cell responses towards IVE-TB antigens in long-term latent Mtb infected individuals. Because the IVE-TB antigens were strongly recognized by TST⁺ individuals, we subsequently analyzed the immune responses toward the seven best recognized antigens in more detail using PBMC from donors that had been exposed to *Mtb* decades ago, but had never developed TB despite the lack of any preventive treatment, designated hLTBI [41;42]. Of additional importance, the availability of several vials of PBMC also allowed more detailed cell subset analysis.

Interestingly, high frequencies of TNF- α - and IL-2-producing CD4⁺ T cells were observed after stimulation with the IVE-TB antigens, whereas only intermediate frequencies of IFN- γ -producing CD4⁺ T cells were detected (Figure 7A). In contrast, high frequencies of IFN- γ -producing as well as TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were present in these donors, whereas fewer IL-2⁺ T cells were detected compared with CD4⁺ T cells. Besides IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2, also the antigen-induced CD4⁺ T-cell activation marker CD154 [57] was expressed.

More detailed analysis of the multifunctional Th1 responses among CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells showed that CD154⁺CD4⁺ T cells were mostly TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ and TNF- α ⁺ (Figure 7B). Furthermore, intermediate frequencies of IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD154⁺CD4⁺ T cells were detected. Finally, a CD154⁺ population was detected, producing none of the IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 cytokines. Intriguingly, the same pattern was observed for every IVE-TB antigen or E/C control antigen. Furthermore, interindividual variation of antigen recognition was observed. Remarkably, few TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were detected compared with TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD4⁺ T cells. IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were the most prominent population present, followed by TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells. Also intermediate IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ and IFN- γ ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were observed. Again, as mentioned for CD4⁺ T cells, the same patterns were observed for every antigen within the CD8⁺ T-cell population as well as interindividual variation of antigen recognition.

A



B

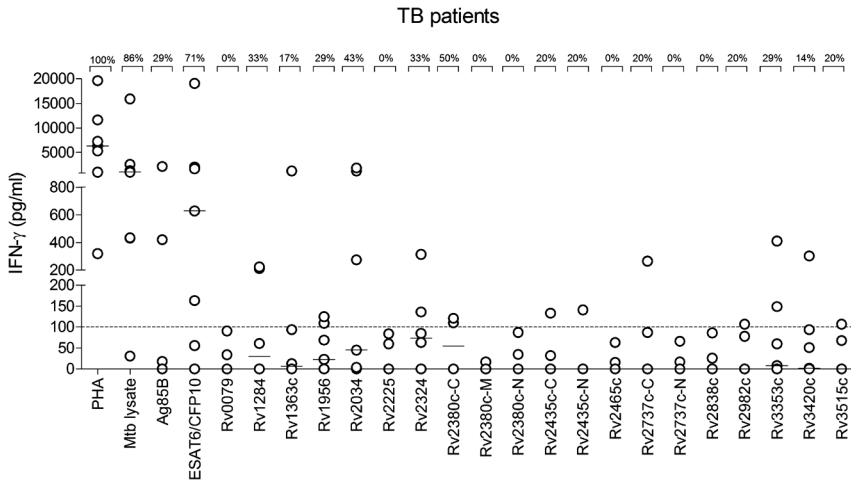


Figure 6. PBMC IFN- γ responses towards IVE-TB antigens in TB patients and WBA E/C⁺ TST⁺ donors. PBMC of WBA E/C⁺ TST⁺ donors ($n = 8$) (A) and TB patients ($n = 7$) (B) were stimulated with IVE-TB antigens and control conditions for 6 days. Levels of IFN- γ were measured and medium background values were subtracted for each response in each donor for comparative purposes. The proportion of responders for each antigen is indicated at the *top* of the graph. Horizontal bars represent the median IFN- γ responses. The dotted line indicates the cut-off value for positivity, arbitrarily set at 100 pg/ml.

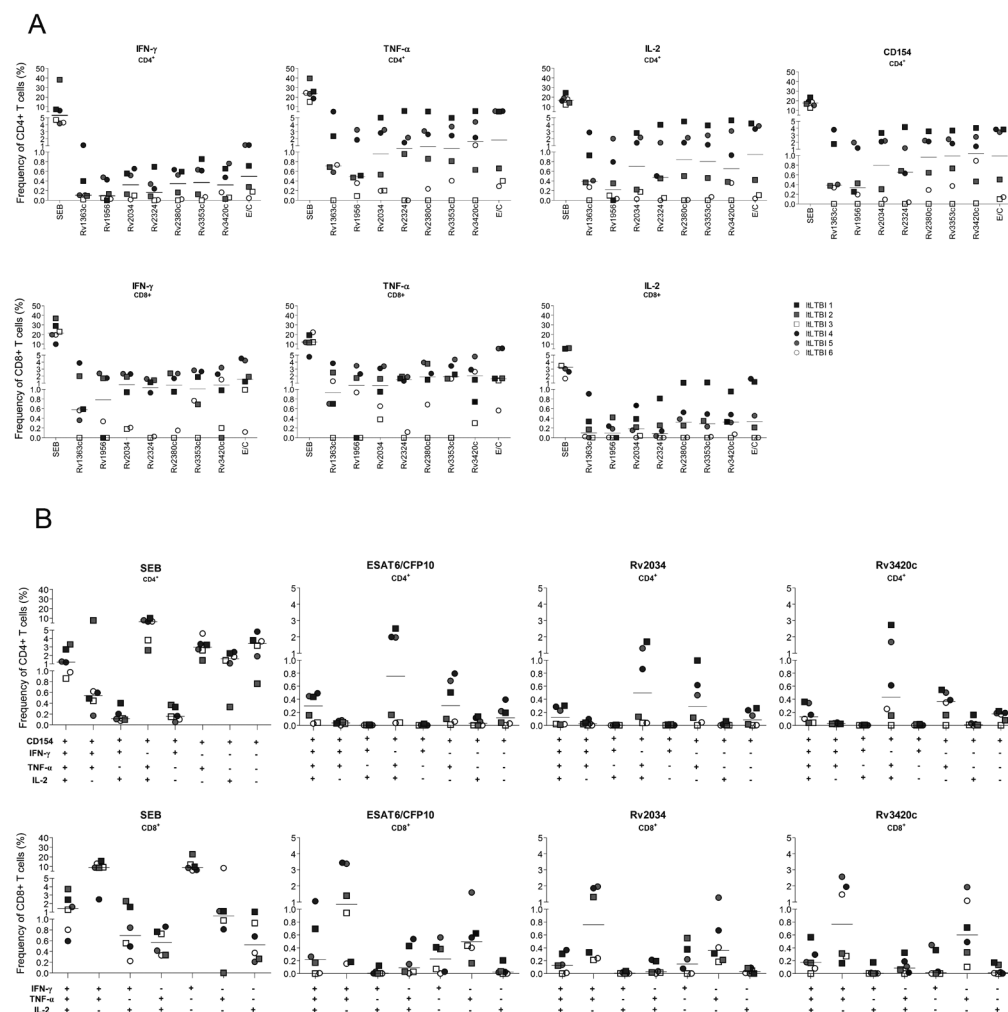


Figure 7. Polychromatic flow cytometric analysis of IVE-TB-specific T-cell responses in long-term latent *Mtb* infected individuals. PBMC from lLTBI ($n = 6$) were stimulated for 16 hours with the seven best recognized antigens as determined in Figure 4. Frequencies of IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-2- and CD154-producing CD4 $^{+}$ and CD8 $^{+}$ T cells were determined (A). Subsequently, “multifunctional” responses were determined by analyzing combinations of IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-2 and CD154 responses for CD4 $^{+}$ T cells and IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 responses for CD8 $^{+}$ T cells. Results for two representative IVE-TB antigens are shown (Rv2034 and Rv3420c) (B). For comparative purposes, medium background values were subtracted for each response in each donor. Horizontal bars represent the median frequency of cytokine-producing CD4 $^{+}$ or CD8 $^{+}$ T cells.

The integrated median fluorescence intensity (iMFI) was calculated to determine the quantitative contribution of cytokines produced by the different multiple and single cytokine producing CD154⁺/CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells (Figure 8). IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD154⁺/CD4⁺ T cells had the highest iMFI, which gradually declined for double producing and single IFN- γ ⁺ CD154⁺/CD4⁺ T cells. IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells contributed the most to IFN- γ production, directly followed by the IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD8⁺ T cells. IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells are also the main contributors for TNF- α , whereas IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD8⁺ T cells showed a higher IL-2 iMFI. TNF- α and IL-2 iMFI were also the highest for TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD154⁺/CD4⁺ T cells, followed by the IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD154⁺/CD4⁺ T cells. Thus the TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD4 and IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8 T cells contribute strongly to the production of Th1 cytokines, followed by the triple positive T cells. Single cytokine producing cells only showed a relatively minor contribution.

In conclusion, seven of the identified IVE-TB antigens are strongly immunogenic, triggering specific and high cellular immune responses in E/C⁺ TST⁺ individuals and ltLTBI individuals, but not in E/C⁻ TST⁺ individuals, healthy mycobacterial naive individuals, and TB patients. The strong IVE-TB responses that were measured in the ltLTBI group were identified as IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells and TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD4⁺ T cells, which were the most prominent contributors to the produced cytokines, followed by triple positive T cells.

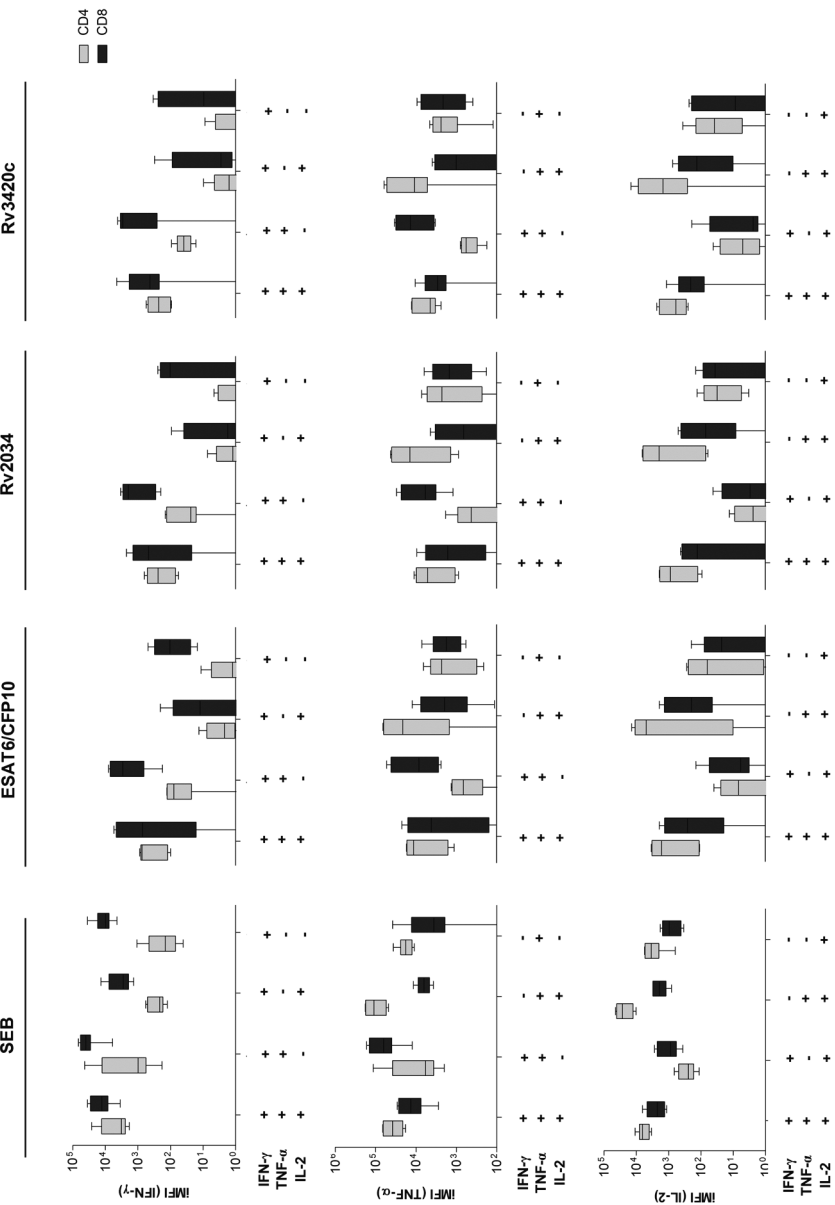


Figure 8. iMFI of IVE-TB-specific CD154⁺CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subsets in long-term latent *Mtb* infected individuals. iMFI values for IFN- γ , TNF- α and/or IL-2 were calculated via multiplication of CD154⁺CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell subset frequency by their MFI. Six hLTBI donors were analyzed. For comparative purposes, medium background iMFI values were subtracted for each response in each donor. Light grey boxes represent CD154⁺CD4⁺ T-cell responses and dark grey boxes CD8⁺ T-cell responses. Lines within boxes represent the medians. The lower boundary of the box represents the 25th percentile and upper boundary the 75th percentile. Whiskers extend to the lowest and highest values.

Discussion

Using quantitative genome-wide *Mtb* transcriptional profiling we have identified a series of *Mtb* genes that are expressed during *in vivo* *Mtb* infection in the lungs of resistant and susceptible mice, which we term IVE-TB. Most of the genes identified have previously been found to be expressed in the *Mtb* proteome, and thus encode bona fide *Mtb* proteins. This is further supported by their immunogenicity profiles, as many of these proteins triggered IFN- γ production in human WBA and lymphocyte stimulating assays in *Mtb* ESAT6/CFP10-responsive patients, but not in ESAT6/CFP10- TST⁺ individuals, HC donors, or TB patients. This is particularly relevant in the case of *Rv2435c* and *Rv3353c* as their protein products have not been identified yet; however IFN- γ responses were demonstrated in E/C⁺ TST⁺ individuals, indirectly showing that these *Mtb* proteins are presented to the human immune system during mycobacterial infection.

Many of the IVE-TB genes we identified have been described previously in relationship to the adaptive response of *Mtb* to environmental stress conditions, especially those that *Mtb* likely encounters during host infection. We identified one *Mtb* DosR regulon-encoded gene (*Rv0079*) [7] as well as six genes that are part of the EHR regulon (*Rv1284*, *Rv1956*, *Rv2034*, *Rv2324*, *Rv2465* and *Rv3515*) [17]. Three of these have also been described as starvation/nutritional stress genes (*Rv1284*, *Rv1956* and *Rv2034*) [14]. This function of the IVE-TB genes in responding to host-induced stress conditions during *in vivo* pulmonary infection enhances the biological plausibility of our findings and lends validity to our approach.

Of further interest, nine of the *Mtb* genes identified in this study have not been described previously in relation to *Mtb* host infection, although some of their functions have been linked to possible adaptation to *in vitro* host-induced stress conditions (Supplementary Table III). Several of these genes have a role in metal transport, metallo-regulatory transcriptional regulation, or represent metalloenzymes. Furthermore genes were identified that play a role in lipid metabolism. This is in agreement with the documented shift towards using fatty acids as an alternative carbon source instead of carbohydrates under nutrient-limiting conditions. Altogether, many of the IVE-TB genes we have identified appear to be related to the adaptation of *Mtb* to environmental stress conditions encountered in the host. Of additional importance, the identification of these genes in our *in vivo* model supports previous findings mostly obtained in *in vitro* models, by showing that they are induced during pulmonary *Mtb* infection *in vivo*. On a cautionary note, however, our data do not allow us to discriminate whether the observed differential *Mtb* gene expression patterns are cause or consequence of variations in host susceptibility (background and/or *sstI* locus).

As already mentioned, *Mtb* gene expression profiling has been performed in the past, mostly focusing on *in vitro*-cultured bacteria grown under a variety of different conditions. Subsequent work assessed *Mtb* gene expression profiles following infection of host cells [8;19;58] and some recent studies have analyzed *Mtb* gene expression patterns also *in vivo* [20;59]. Ward *et al.* [59] showed that there was little overlap in the *Mtb* genes reported to be expressed in different

studies reporting on *Mtb* intracellular infection, likely as a result of methodological differences. Nonetheless, the two studies Ward *et al.* described [8;60] indicate that similar functional categories of *Mtb* genes are expressed during intracellular infection. In line with this notion, when comparing our data to previous reports there are few overlapping individual *Mtb* genes, but we nevertheless do identify genes with previous described functional categories. These differences are probably due to differences in selection criteria, in experimental settings such as infection route, and the specific mouse models we have used, which have not been analyzed previously.

Despite these differences, several of our selected IVE-TB genes do overlap with *Mtb* genes identified in other studies as indicated in Table II. The *Mtb* gene *Rv2225* whose expression was TB granuloma associated was also significantly expressed in the artificial granuloma model of Karakousis *et al.* [21]. This strengthens their association with host granuloma formation. Our *in vivo* pulmonary TB granuloma-associated *Mtb*-expressed genes did not overlap with the granuloma associated genes or macrophage associated genes described by Ramakrishnan and colleagues [61;62] for *M. marinum*, which might be due to differences between the mycobacterial species studied. Moreover, several of the IVE-TB genes we identified to be highly expressed have also been described previously, including *Rv0467 (icl)*, which encodes an enzyme in the glyoxylate pathway which is important for *Mtb* persistence of *Mtb* [63;64], and *Rv0991c*, which is part of the so-called *in vivo* expressed genomic island [20].

The new *Mtb* antigens we have identified here may represent interesting targets for vaccination, as they are expressed during *Mtb* infection in the (genetically susceptible) lung, which we consider a critical parameter for appropriate antigen selection. Moreover, successful vaccine antigens should be conserved between multiple *Mtb* strains. All protein sequences examined were conserved among the tested *Mtb* strains. Additionally, for almost all IVE-TB genes multiple proteome studies have documented their expression as proteins in *Mtb* (Table III). A subset of the analyzed IVE-TB proteins was shown to be strongly immunogenic as judged by Th1 responses in WBA, lymphocyte stimulation assays, and polychromatic flow cytometry. Indeed, the highest IFN- γ responses were identified within the E/C⁺ population of our TST⁺ cohort, whereas no differences in mitogen-induced responses were seen. No responses were seen in *Mtb* nonresponder healthy individuals, suggesting that T-cell recognition of IVE-TB antigens is indeed antigen specific and is correlated with *Mtb* exposure based on TST and QFT-GIT conversions. Interestingly, TB patients showed relatively low recognition of the IVE-TB antigens, suggesting that they did not develop strong Th1 immunity against these antigens.

Importantly, IVE-TB antigen specific responses could be detected in ltLTBI, which have been exposed to *Mtb* many years ago and never developed TB symptoms despite not having had preventive treatment. The most prominent T-cell subsets with activity against IVE-TB antigens included IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells and TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD154⁺CD4⁺ T cells. Thus, CD8⁺ T cells were the major contributors of IFN- γ production. Interestingly, also a population of antigen-specific-activated CD154⁺CD4⁺ T cells was observed that did not produce IFN- γ , TNF- α or IL-

2. These cells may exert alternative functions, which could include IL-17 production, immune regulation, or yet other functions, which need further study. Finally, we previously reported multifunctional CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses towards resuscitation promoting factor and DosR proteins and showed that IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were also the most prominent subset in the response to these antigens, suggesting that the development of specific differential T-cell subsets may be unrelated to the nature of the specific protein antigen involved.

CD8⁺ T cells are activated upon recognition of epitopes presented via MHC-I molecules, indicating that the antigens are present and processed via the canonical cytosolic pathway or via alternative (e.g. cross priming) pathways [65]. Both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells are important in *Mtb* control, and CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell-deficient mice, for example, have increased susceptibility to *Mtb* [66]. CD4⁺ T cells were recently shown to play an important (IFN- γ -independent) role in the indirect activation of IFN- γ ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells [67]. In any case, our data obtained in the ltLTBI individuals show that the *Mtb* antigen-specific CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells recognizing IVE-TB antigens must be long lived.

The immunogenicity of some of the IVE-TB antigens has been analyzed previously. The immunogenicity of the DosR Rv0079 protein was analyzed in TST⁺ (endemic) individuals as well as (cured) TB patients [9;12;68]. In these studies Rv0079 protein was recognized by a minority of individuals, in agreement with our results in this study. The immunogenicity of EHR and starvation antigens Rv1284 and Rv1956 was previously analyzed in *M. bovis*-exposed cattle [17] [69]. Rv1284 was one of the five best recognized antigens, whereas Rv1956 was also highly recognized. In contrast to the responses observed in *M. bovis*-exposed cattle, Rv1284 was moderately recognized in our study, whereas Rv1956 was better recognized.

In conclusion, by combining *Mtb* genome-wide transcriptional profiling in the lungs of infected mice with strikingly differing host susceptibility backgrounds, we have identified *Mtb* genes that are specifically expressed in resistant or susceptible animals during pulmonary infection. These genes reveal a signature of the *Mtb* stress response *in vivo* depending on the genetic host background and host susceptibility. From these genes we selected 16 proteins, of which seven proved to be highly immunogenic in E/C⁺ TST⁺ donors and ltLTBI and therefore represent interesting TB vaccine candidate and possibly TB biomarker antigens [70].

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Conflict of interest. TO is co-inventor of an *Mtb* latency antigen patent, which is owned by LUMC.

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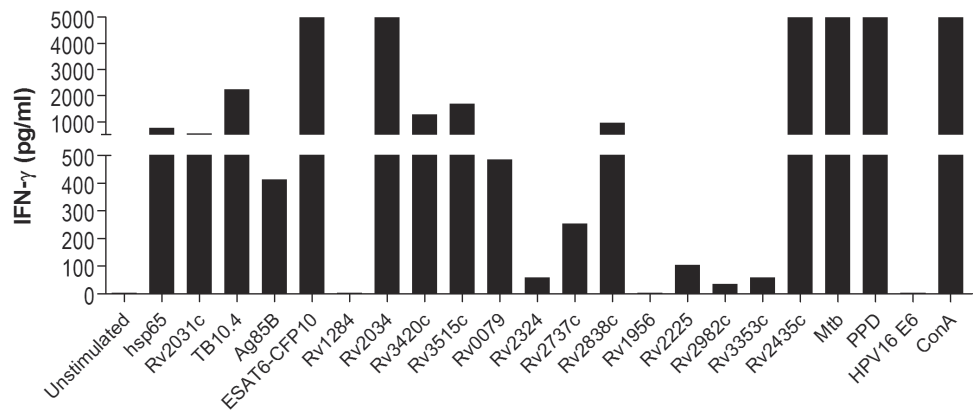
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Supplementary data



Supplementary Figure 1. IFN- γ production in response to IVE-TB proteins by splenocytes of *Mtb* infected C3H mice. C3H mice were infected intranasally with *Mtb* (10^4 CFU), and after 6 weeks their splenocytes were harvested and stimulated with control antigens (hsp65, Rv2031c, TB10.4, Ag85B, ESAT-6/CFP10, *Mtb* lysate and PPD), IVE-TB antigens (Rv1284, Rv2034, Rv3420c, Rv3515c, Rv0079, Rv2324, Rv2737c, Rv2838c, Rv1956, Rv2225, Rv2982c, Rv3353c and Rv2435c all in final concentration of 10 μ g/ml), mitogen (conA; 1 μ g/ml; positive control), or HPV16E6 recombinant protein (10 μ g/ml; negative protein control). Rv2737c and Rv2435c protein fragments were pooled. All groups included three mice. All mice were separately analyzed. Results are shown for one animal, representative for each test group.

Supplementary Table III. Putative IVE-TB protein functions in association with *Mtb* infection

Gene	Protein	Described (predicted) function	Possible role in <i>Mtb</i> host infection	References
<i>Rv1284</i>	Metalloenzyme β -carbonic anhydrase	Catalyzes the hydrolysis of carbon dioxide to bicarbonate and protons	Bicarbonate and protons essential in many processes including fatty acid metabolism and regulation of pH homeostasis	[1-3]
<i>Rv2380c</i>	Peptide synthetase (MbtE)	Involved in assembly of mycobactin (lipophylic siderophore)	Mycobactins acquire iron from the (host) environment	[4-12]
<i>Rv3515c</i>	Fatty acyl-CoA ligase (FadD19)	Possibly involved in degradation of sterol side chains	Enzyme involved in lipid degradation (alternative use of fatty acids instead of carbohydrates as energy source <i>in vivo</i>)	[13-18]
<i>Rv0079</i>	Unknown	Cytoplasmic translation factor properties	Possible inhibitory effect on protein synthesis	[19;20]
<i>Rv2324</i>	Asparagine synthase C gene family protein (AsnC)	Transcriptional regulator; plays a role in asparagine biosynthesis	Lrp/AsnC gene members associated to adaptation to environmental conditions (fatty/famine regulatory proteins)	[21-23]
<i>Rv2737c</i>	Recombinase A (RecA)	Repairs DNA double-strand breaks via homologous recombination	DNA repair induced by e.g. host cell induced oxidative stress or chemotherapy	[1;24-32]
<i>Rv2838c</i>	Ribosome binding factor A (RbfA)	Cold shock protein, binds to ribosomal 30S subunit	Allows protein translation by ribosomes at low temperatures, which <i>Mtb</i> may encounter during air-borne transmission	[33]
<i>Rv3420c</i>	Ribosomal protein alanine acetyltransferase (rimI)	Catalyzes transfer of acetyl group present on acyl-CoA to amines	Amines are present in many different molecules; prokaryotic protein acetylation particularly of enzymes involved in metabolic pathways such as fatty acid metabolism and gluconeogenesis	[34-37]
<i>Rv2034</i>	Arsenic repressor (ArsR) protein (SmtB/ArsR family)	Metalloregulatory transcriptional repressor	Positively regulates <i>PhoP</i> , an essential virulence regulatory system of <i>Mtb</i> and also binds to hypoxia and fatty acid metabolism related genes	[15;38-44]
<i>Rv2982c</i>	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (gpdA2)	Involved in phospholipid biosynthesis	Unknown	
<i>Rv2435c</i>	Membrane-bound adenyl cyclase	Cyclases necessary for production of the secondary messenger cAMP	Secretion of bacterial cAMP plays a major role in survival of intracellular <i>Mtb</i>	[45-49]
<i>Rv1956</i>	Antitoxin (HigA)	Part of toxin-antitoxin (TA) operon, together with Rv1955 (HigB)	Under normal growth conditions toxin and antitoxin form inactive complexes, but during stress antitoxin is degraded allowing toxin targeted regulation	[23;44;50-54]
<i>Rv1363c</i>	Predicted membrane protein	Unknown, possibly mammalian cell entry (Mcc) associated gene (Mas)	Possibly involved in host cell invasion	[55;56]
<i>Rv2225</i>	PanB	Initiates first step in biosynthesis of panthothenate (vitamin B5, precursor of CoA)	Crucial for fatty acid metabolism	[18;57;58]
<i>Rv2465c</i>	Ribose-5-phosphate isomerase (tpiB)	Catalyzing step in one of the reactional steps in arabinose metabolism	Structures that are generated are major components in the mycobacterial cell wall	[59]
<i>Rv3353c</i>	Conserved hypothetical protein	Unknown	Unknown	

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CHAPTER 5

The newly identified *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* antigen Rv2034 induces CD4⁺ T cells that protect against pulmonary infection in HLA-DR transgenic mice

Susanna Commandeur, Susan J.F. van den Eeden, Karin Dijkman, Kees L.M.C. Franken,
Krista E. van Meijgaarden, Louis Wilson, Tom H.M. Ottenhoff and Annemieke Geluk

Department of Infectious Diseases, Leiden University Medical Center, The Netherlands

Submitted

Abstract

Tuberculosis (TB) remains one of the most serious infectious diseases worldwide. *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG, the current vaccine against TB, provides insufficient protection against adult pulmonary TB, indicating the need for improved TB vaccines. Besides being immunogenic, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) antigens that represent potential vaccine candidates should also be expressed *in vivo* during *Mtb* infection. We have analyzed the *in vivo* immunogenicity and protective efficacy of Rv2034, a novel potential vaccine candidate that is expressed in lungs of *Mtb*-infected susceptible mice and that was recognized by T cells from tuberculin skin test-positive individuals. The Rv2034 protein was highly immunogenic in HLA-DR3-immunized tg mice, but not in HLA-DR3-negative littermates. Rv2034 protein immunization induced IFN- γ^+ /TNF $^+$ and IFN- γ^+ CD4 $^+$ T cells specific for an HLA-DR3-restricted epitope, Rv2034 peptide 31-50. CD4 $^+$ T-cell responses were optimally induced when using TLR9 and TLR3 ligand-adjuvants, whereas Rv2034-specific antibodies were observed using ligands for TLR2, TLR3, TLR4, TLR5, TLR7 and TLR9. Finally, Rv2034/CpG immunization reduced the number of bacilli in the lungs after *Mtb* challenge specifically in HLA-DR3 mice indicating the potential of Rv2034 in TB vaccines.

Introduction

8.7 million new tuberculosis (TB) cases and 1.4 million deaths due to TB were recorded for 2011, illustrating the enormous global burden of TB on human health [1]. BCG, the only registered TB vaccine, does protect against severe forms of childhood TB but not sufficiently against pulmonary TB in adults, nor does protect against reactivation from latent TB [2;3]. There is wide consensus that better TB vaccines are urgently needed.

In search of new TB vaccine candidate antigens, we have recently used a genome-wide unbiased antigen discovery approach in which we investigated the expression of 2170 *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*) genes during infection in the lungs of four genetically related but distinct mouse strains, which ranged in TB susceptibility and TB disease manifestations. We identified a series of *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) genes and showed that several of these IVE-TB gene encoded proteins were efficiently recognized by human T cells and thus qualify as candidate TB vaccine antigens [4]. One of the IVE-TB genes identified, *Rv2034*, encodes for an arsenic repressor (ArsR) protein that belongs to the *Synechococcus* metallothionein regulator (SmtB)/ArsR family of metallo-regulatory transcriptional repressors [5]. *Rv2034* is suggested to be involved in the regulation of lipid metabolism and the hypoxic stress response of *Mtb* [6-8]. This is further supported by studies showing *Rv2034* gene expression by *Mtb* cultures grown under starvation-, [9] hypoxic- [10], and multi-stress conditions [11], as well as expression in *Mtb* persister populations [12].

SmtB/ArsR transcriptional repressors control resistance to metal ions and bind to DNA elements in genes involved in metal-metabolism and -detoxification. Upon metal binding the SmtB/ArsR family repressor protein dissociates from the ligand DNA, thus activating transcription. The SmtB/ArsR family regulator is widely present and at least one SmtB/ArsR member is encoded by most (sequenced) bacterial genomes. Notably, the *Mtb* genome encodes 12 SmtB/ArsR-like repressors, which is highly unusual compared to bacteria other than Actinobacteria [13]. Recent work identified several DNA binding sites for *Rv2034*, including promoter regions of major stress response genes such as the DosR gene *Rv2031c* (α -crystallin/ hspX), *Rv0350-Rv0353* (DnaK, GrpE), *Rv0440* (GroEL2), *Rv1907c-Rv1912c* (katG, FurA) and *Rv3197A* (WhiB7), as well as genes involved in fatty acid metabolism; *Rv3543c-Rv3545c* (FadE28, FadE29), *Rv3504-Rv3505* (FadE26, FadE27), *Rv1094* (DesA2) and *Rv0244* (FadE5) [7]. Interestingly, besides displaying self-regulation, the *Rv2034* protein, in contrast to its predicted function as a repressor, positively regulates the expression of *groEL2* and *phoP*, an important virulence gene of *Mtb* [6;8]. Thus, *Rv2034* gene expression and protein function support a role in adaptation to stress environment and regulation of lipid metabolism, both essential in *in vivo* *Mtb* infection. In view of its potential mechanistic function in *Mtb*'s strategy to survive inside the human host, the induction of immune responses against *Rv2034* would be an attractive option to direct immunity towards *Mtb* proteins that are essential to *Mtb* and that are expressed in the primary target organ, the lung.

In this study, we have investigated the vaccine potency of the Rv2034 protein in the context of HLA using the HLA-DR3 transgenic mouse model [14] and describe the *in vivo* immunogenicity of the Rv2034 protein and synthetic peptides thereof, as well as their efficacy to reduce the number of *Mtb* bacteria after intranasal challenge with live *Mtb*.

Materials and methods

Mouse strains. HLA-DRB1*03:01/DRA, murine class II-deficient (designated HLA-DR3) mice were generated as described [14], backcrossed for 10 generations with C57Bl/10 and eventually intercrossed. During breeding, PBMCs of each mouse were typed by flow cytometry for HLA-DR (FITC-conjugated mouse IgG2 κ anti-HLA-DR; BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ), murine-CD4 (PE-Cy5-conjugated Rat IgG2a, κ anti-mouse CD4; BD Biosciences) and PE-conjugated mouse (BALB/c) IgG2a κ anti-mouse I-A^b; BD Biosciences). Littermates lacking HLA-DR expression (designated HLA-DR3^{neg}) were used as negative controls. HLA-A*02:01/H2-D Enge/J (designated HLA-A2) mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) [15]. Surface expression of HLA-A*02:01 was confirmed by flow cytometry analysis. HLA-A2. DR3 transgenic mice were generated by mating the HLA-DR3 with HLA-A2 mice. All mice were bred under specific pathogen-free conditions.

Synthetic peptides. Peptides were purchased from Peptide 2.0 Inc. (Chantilly, VA, USA). Homogeneity and purity were confirmed by analytical HPLC and by mass spectrometry. Purity of all peptides was $\geq 80\%$. All impurities consist of shorter versions of the peptides caused by $< 100\%$ coupling efficiency in each round of synthesis.

Recombinant proteins. *Mtb* genes were amplified by PCR from genomic *Mtb* DNA and cloned using Gateway technology (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) [16]. Purified recombinant proteins were produced and analyzed as described [16;17] and contained endotoxin levels below 50 IU per mg recombinant protein as tested using a Limulus Amebocyte Lysate (LAL) assay (Cambrex, East Rutherford, NJ). Recombinant proteins were tested to exclude protein non-specific T-cell stimulation and cellular toxicity in IFN- γ release assays using PBMC of *in vitro* purified protein derivative (PPD)-negative, healthy Dutch donors recruited at the Blood Bank Sanquin, Leiden, The Netherlands. None of these controls had experienced any known prior contact with TB patients.

Immunizations. For protein immunization, mice (4 - 5 animals per group) were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) three times with 25 μ g protein generally in combination with 50 μ g CpG (ODN1826 5'-TCC ATG ACG TTC CTG ACG TT -3'; InvivoGen, San Diego, CA; TLR9 ligand) in 200 μ l PBS in the right flank with two weeks intervals. Control mice were injected s.c. with 10⁶ colony forming units (CFU) BCG 1331 (*M. bovis* Bacillus Calmette Guérin; Statens Serum

Institute, Copenhagen, Denmark) from frozen ampoules. Splenocytes were harvested 21 days after final injections. Since ODNs containing unmethylated CpG motifs can activate immune cells to produce cytokines [18], we routinely immunize with CpG alone as a (negative) control to assess the antigen specificity of immunization. For adjuvants comparison experiments identical amounts of Rv2034 protein were administered s.c. with either: 50 µg PAM3CysK4 (N-Palmitoyl-S-[2,3-bis(palmitoyloxy)-(2RS)-propyl]-[R]-cysteinyl-[S]-seryl-[S]-lysyl-[S]-lysyl-[S]-lysyl-[S]-lysine; Invivogen; TLR2 ligand), 50 µg Poly(I:C) HMW (polyinosinic-polycytidylic acid high molecular weight; Invivogen; TLR3 ligand), 10 µg MPL/TDM (monophosphoryl lipid A/ trehalose dicorynomycolate; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO; TLR4 ligand), 10 µg Flagellin (Invivogen; TLR5 ligand) or 50 µg R848 (Imidazoquinoline compound, Invivogen; human TLR7/8 and mouse TLR7 ligand).

Ethics statement. The handling of mice was conducted in accordance with the regulations set forward by the animal care committee of the LUMC and in compliance with European Community Directive 86/609 for the care and use of laboratory animals.

Welfare monitoring. All animals included in the experiments were weighed once a week and observed daily in order to ensure ethics requirements and to monitor any adverse effects possibly related to the vaccination.

In vitro cultures. Splenocytes were isolated from individual animals by homogenizing spleens through a plastic cellstrainer (BD Biosciences) and splenocytes (3×10^6 cells/ml) were resuspended in IMDM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine (Invitrogen) penicillin (100 U/ml), streptomycin (100 µg/ml) (Invitrogen), 8% heat-inactivated FCS (Greiner Bio-One) and 5×10^{-5} M β -mercaptoethanol (Sigma). Cell suspensions (100 µl) were added to 96-well round-bottomed microtiter plates (Costar, Corning Incorporated). Cells were incubated in quadruplicates with 100 µl of medium, recombinant protein (1 or 10 µg/ml), or synthetic peptide (1 or 10 µg/ml). The mitogen concanavalin A (conA; 2 µg/ml; Sigma) was used in all experiments as a positive control for cell viability. After 6 days supernatants were taken from each well, quadruplicates pooled and frozen at -20 °C until performing IFN- γ ELISA assay.

IFN- γ ELISA. Before ELISAs were performed on supernatants from *Mtb* infected murine material, supernatants or sera were transferred into 0.2 µm filter plates (Corning, NY, USA) and centrifuged for 3 minutes at 1300 rpm. The filtrated material was collected in clean 96-wells plates and transferred out of the MLIII lab for further analyses. Detection of IFN- γ in culture supernatants of *in vitro* cultured splenocytes was performed by ELISA (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions. OD values were converted into concentrations using Microplate Manager software, version 5.2.1 (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Veenendaal, The Netherlands). The cut-

off value to define positive responses was set beforehand at 100 pg/ml. The assay sensitivity level was 20 pg/ml. Values for unstimulated whole blood cultures were typically < 30 pg/ml.

Intracellular cytokine staining. For polychromatic flow cytometry, splenocytes (3×10^6 cells/ml) were cultured *in vitro* with peptide (5 µg/ml). After 7 days, cells were incubated with medium or fresh peptide (5 µg/ml). After 4 hours brefeldin A (Sigma; 2.5 µg/ml) was added for overnight (20 hour) incubation after which cells were permeabilized and fixed using Cytofix/Cytoperm (BD Biosciences) and Perm/Wash (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions and stained using phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-CD8 β_2 (BD Pharmingen), PE-Cy5-conjugated anti-CD4 (BD Pharmingen), eFluor450-conjugated anti-CD19 (eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA), Vivid (Invitrogen), Allophycocyanin (APC)-conjugated anti-IL-2 (BD Pharmingen), Alexafluor700-conjugated anti-IFN- γ (BD Pharmingen) and PeCy7-conjugated anti-TNF (BD Pharmingen). As positive controls for detection of IL-2, IFN- γ or TNF, MiCK-1 cytokine positive control cells (BD Pharmingen) were used.

Determination of anti-Rv2034 antibodies (Ab). Levels of antibody directed against Rv2034 in serum from immunized mice were determined by ELISA. Briefly, plates were coated overnight at 4 °C with recombinant Rv2034 protein or PBS (0.4% BSA) as a negative control. Plates were blocked for 2 hours using PBS containing 1% BSA and 1% Tween-20. Different sample dilutions (100 µl/well) were added to wells and incubated at 37°C for 2 hours. Plates were washed three times using PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20 and 100 µl/well horse radish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated, rabbit-anti mouse total IgG, IgA and IgM (P0260 Dako, Glostrup, Denmark). After 2 hours at 37°C, plates were washed three times using PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20 and 100 µl/well tetramethylbenzidine substrate (TMB; Sigma) was added for 15 min at RT. The reaction was stopped by addition of H₂SO₄ (1M; 100 µl/well). OD values at 450 nm were determined using BioRad Microplate reader 680 (BioRad Laboratories, Veenendaal, The Netherlands). Mean Ab concentrations were calculated from the linear part of the titration curve.

Infection with live Mtb and determination of bacterial burden. Naive and immunized mice (5 animals per group) were infected with live *Mtb* strain H37Rv 3 weeks after the third protein immunization or 12 weeks after BCG immunization. The mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (2-chloro-2-(difluoromethoxy)-1,1,1-trifluoro-ethane; Pharmachemie BV, Haarlem, The Netherlands) and intranasal (i.n.) infected with 10^5 CFU *Mtb* from frozen ampoules. Mice were sacrificed 6 weeks after *Mtb* challenge and lungs were aseptically removed. The organs were homogenized in sterile PBS and the number of bacteria was determined by culturing serial dilutions of the homogenates on 7H11 agar plates (BD Biosciences) supplemented with BD BBL™ Middlebrook OADC enrichment (100 ml per bottle; BD Biosciences), PANTA [BD Biosciences; 1 vial per liter containing Polymyxin B (6.000 units), Amphotericin B (600 µg), Nalidixic acid (2.400

µg), Trimethoprim (600 µg), Azlocillin (600 µg)] and ampicillin (3.4 mg/ml; Vepidan, Denmark). Colonies were counted after 3 weeks incubation at 37 °C. In case of animals that received *Mtb* infection combined with BCG vaccination, 7H11 agar plates containing 2-thiophene carboxylic acid hydrazide (2 µg/ml; Sigma) were used to distinguish BCG colonies from *Mtb* colonies. Protective efficacies are expressed as log10 bacterial counts in immunized mice compared to BCG immunized mice.

Statistical analysis. Graph Pad Prism (version 5) software was used for statistical analysis. Bacterial titers were analyzed by the Mann-Whitney test. *In vitro* cytokine levels were compared using student's t test. P-values ≤ 0.05 were considered significant.

Results

Identification of Rv2034 T-cell epitopes in HLA-DR3 tg mice

In order to evaluate the *in vivo* immunogenicity of Rv2034 different HLA-transgenic (tg) mouse models were used: HLA-DR3 tg mice lacking murine MHC class II (HLA-DR3.Ab⁰), which has been shown to be suitable for *in vivo* identification of HLA-DR3 restricted T-cell epitopes [14;19], and HLA-A*0201 mice [20;21] which express endogenous MHC class II in addition to the hybrid class I MHC (α1 and α2 domains of HLA-A2*0201; α3 of H-2D^d) [15].

Mice were immunized three times with Rv2034 protein in CpG as adjuvant and IFN-γ levels in splenocytes induced by the Rv2034 protein as well as ten 20-mer peptides spanning the entirety of Rv2034, were analyzed (Figure 1). Immunization with Rv2034 in CpG induced significant levels of IFN-γ in HLA-DR3 and HLA-A2.DR3 transgenic mice against both the protein and peptides p31-50, p41-60 and p51-70. These peptides represent 20-mers which each overlap 10 amino acids with the previous and subsequent peptide (Table 1). Rv2034-immunized HLA-A2 mice responded to a 13-fold lower extent to the whole protein, but not to any of the 20-mer peptides, perhaps due to the low IFN-γ production observed in these mice in response to the protein.

HLA-DR3^{neg}/murine MHC class II^{neg} mice did not respond to any of the stimuli except the conA control. Also HLA-DR3 mice that received CpG alone did not show any IFN-γ response except to conA. None of the Rv2034-immunized mice recognized the control protein (HPV16E6) or peptide (HLA-DR3-restricted peptide hsp65 p3-13) [22], indicating the Rv2034-specificity. Thus, these results indicate that IFN-γ secretion after Rv2034 immunization in the models used, is predominantly HLA-DR3-restricted and that presentation of Rv2034 protein most likely does not occur via endogenous murine MHC class II such as present in HLA-A2 mice.

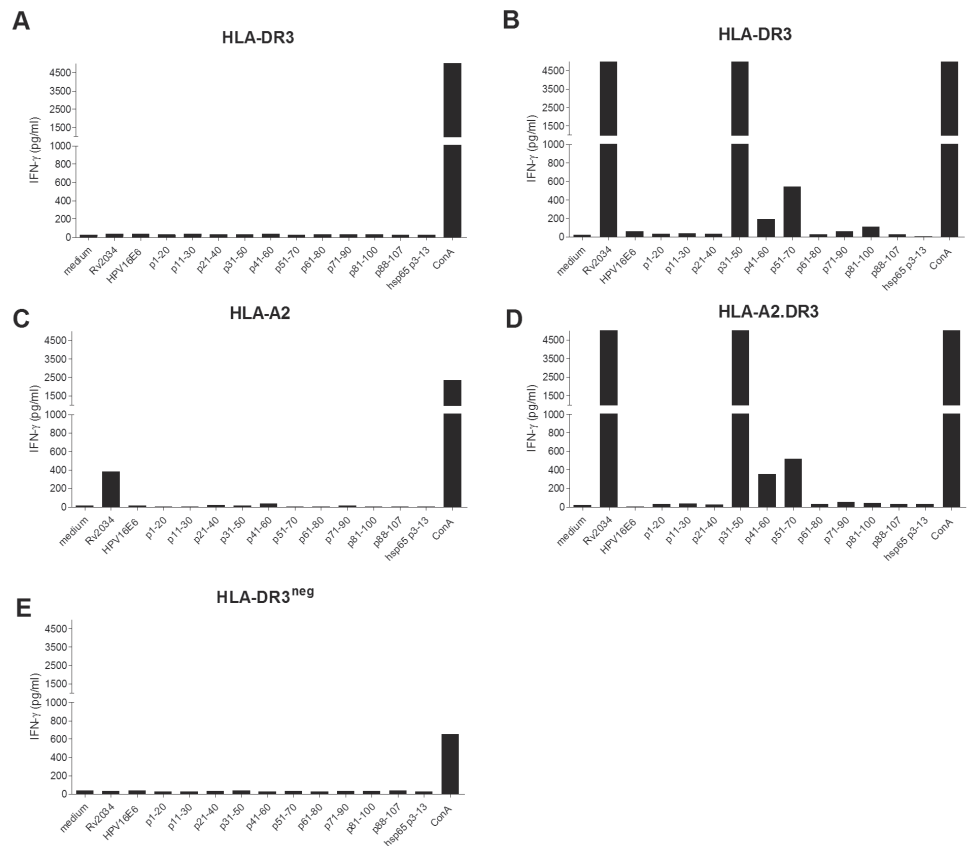


Figure 1. IFN- γ secretion after Rv2034 immunization is HLA-DR3-restricted. HLA-DR3 mice were immunized three times with CpG alone (**A**) or Rv2034 recombinant protein in CpG (**B**). In addition HLA-A2 (**C**), HLA-A2:DR3 (**D**) or HLA-DR3^{neg} (**E**) mice were immunized three times with Rv2034 recombinant protein in CpG. IFN- γ secretion was analyzed by ELISA after 5 days *in vitro* stimulation of splenocytes with Rv2034 protein (10 μ g/ml), 10 synthetic Rv2034 peptides (20-mers overlapping 10 amino acids; 10 μ g/ml), mitogen (conA; positive control), HPV16E6 recombinant protein (10 μ g/ml as negative protein control) and HLA-DR3-restricted epitope hsp65 p3-13 (10 μ g/ml as negative peptide control). All groups included five mice. All mice were separately analyzed. Results are shown for one animal, representative for each test group.

Table 1. Rv2034 overlapping 20-mers and 30-mer

peptide	amino acid sequence
p1-20 ^a	MSTYRSPDRAWQALADGTRR
p11-30	WQALADGTRRAIVERLAHGP
p21-40	AIVERLAHGPLAVGELARDL
p31-50	LAVGELARDLPVSRPAVSQH
p41-60	PVSRPAVSQHLKVLKTARLV
p51-70	LKVLKTARLVCDRPAAGTRRV
p61-80	CDRPAAGTRRVQLDPTGLAA
p71-90	YQLDPTGLAALRTDLDRFWT
p81-100	LRTDLDRFWTRALTGYAQLI
p88-107	FWTRALTGYAQLIDSEGDDT
p31-60	LAVGELARDLPVSRPAVSQHLKVLKTARLV

^ap: peptide

Rv2034 peptide immunization in HLA-DR3 mice

Synthetic long peptides (SLP) are able to induce CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells more efficiently than shorter epitopes [23]. SLP require professional APC such as dendritic cells (DCs) for antigen processing and presentation which increases their vaccine efficacy significantly compared to shorter peptides that are loaded directly onto MHC class II molecules [24]. Therefore, we synthesized the 30-mer sequence Rv2034 p31-60 covering the three immunogenic Rv2034 peptides (p31-50, p41-60, p51-70) and used this to immunize HLA-DR3 mice (Figure 2A). Immunization of HLA-DR3 mice with SLP p31-60 induced efficient responses to Rv2034 p31-50 and p31-60 but also to the Rv2034 protein.

Most current immunization strategies aim at priming immune responses against antigens and epitopes that already are dominant T-cell targets during natural infection. A broader T-cell repertoire including T cells specific for subdominant epitopes not recognized during natural infection, may, when primed sufficiently through immunization, offer additional protection. Peptide epitope-based vaccines can circumvent the propensity of the immune system to focus on immunodominant epitopes by simultaneously targeting the response to dominant as well as subdominant epitopes [25]. Thus, we also used Rv2034 peptide pool composed of ten overlapping peptides with or without the immunodominant p31-50 to immunize HLA-DR3 mice. Rv2034 peptide pool immunization induced responses to the same three core p31-50 related peptides as did the whole Rv2034 protein (Figure 2B). Instead, immunization with a pool of Rv2034 peptides lacking p31-50 induced IFN- γ responses to p41-60, p51-70 and p31-60 but did not result in IFN- γ responses to any of the other peptides, indicating that Rv2034 does not contain any subdominant epitopes in the context of HLA-DR3 (Figure 2C).

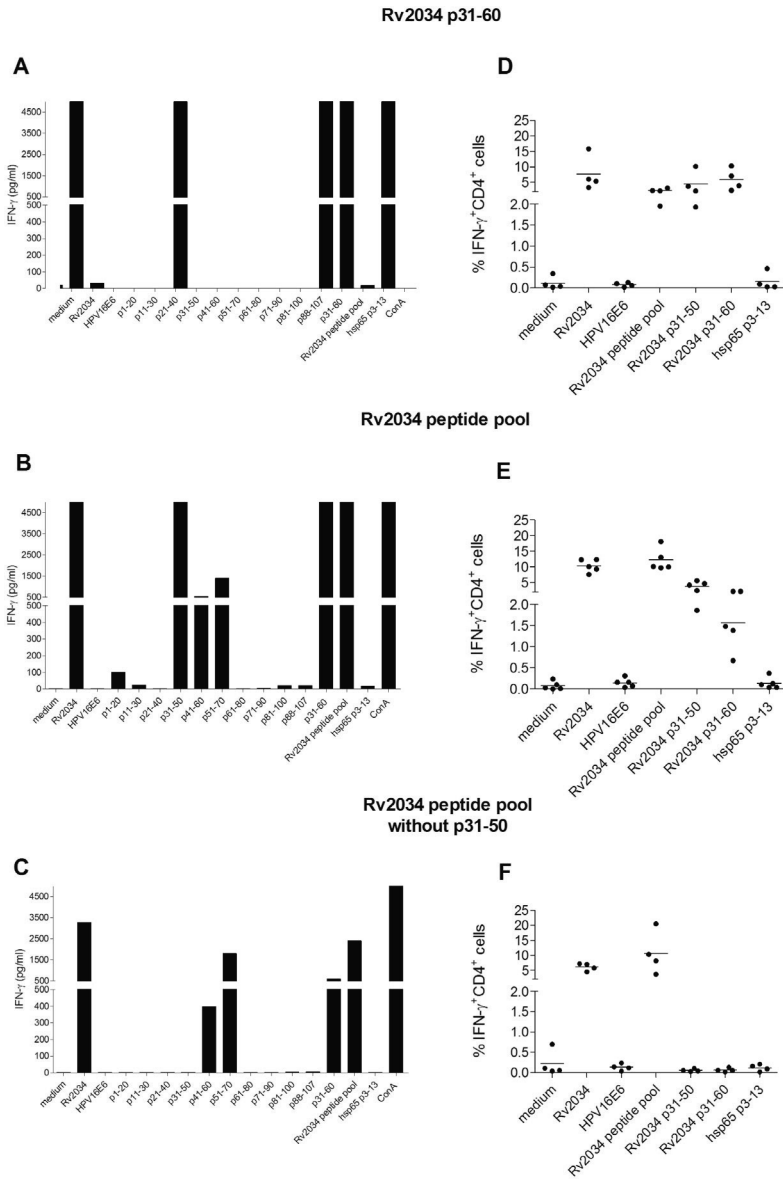


Figure 2. IFN- γ production after Rv2034 peptide immunization. HLA-DR3 mice were immunized three times with Rv2034 30-mer p31-60 in CpG (**A** and **D**), Rv2034 peptide pool composed of ten 20-mers overlapping 10 amino acids (10 μ g/ peptide) including p31-50 in CpG (**B** and **E**) or without p31-50 in CpG (**C** and **F**). IFN- γ secretion was analyzed by ELISA (**A**, **B**, **C**) after 5 days *in vitro* stimulation of splenocytes with Rv2034 protein or peptides, control protein HPV16E6, control peptide hsp16 p3-13 (all 10 μ g/ml) or control mitogen (1 μ g/ml). Intracellular IFN- γ production by CD4 $^{+}$ T cells was measured (**D**, **E**, **F**) after *in vitro* stimulation of splenocytes of immunized mice with the same antigen as used for immunization. After 7 days, cells were incubated with medium or fresh peptides for 1h before addition of brefeldin A and analysis for intracellular IFN- γ production. No IFN- γ was detected in CD8 $^{+}$ T cells (data not shown). All groups included five mice. All mice were separately analyzed.

Since T-cell subtypes differ in their ability to induce protection against *Mtb*, we identified the phenotype of Rv2034-responsive T cells: splenocytes of HLA-DR3 mice immunized with Rv2034 peptide or peptide pools were stimulated *in vitro* for 7 days. Subsequently, intracellular IFN- γ production was assessed by flow cytometry analysis (Figure 2D-F). Rv2034 peptide pool immunization of HLA-DR3 mice induced IFN- γ production by CD4⁺ T cells after *in vitro* stimulation with Rv2034 protein, Rv2034 peptides and peptide pool, whereas no responses were observed in mice that were injected with CpG alone nor in HLA-DR3-negative littermates and HLA-A2 mice (data not shown). The control protein HPV16E6 and HLA-DR3-restricted peptide hsp65 p3-13 did not induce IFN- γ in any of the immunized mice. As expected, immunization with the peptide pool lacking the dominant peptide Rv2034 p31-50 did not induce any responses to p31-50 or p31-60, whereas immunization with 30-mer p31-60 induced strong responses to the whole protein as well. CD8⁺ T cells did not produce IFN- γ following *in vitro* peptide re-stimulation (data not shown) confirming CD4⁺ T cell-specificity for the HLA-DR3-restricted response to Rv2034.

Induction of polyfunctional T cells in response to Rv2034

Antigen-specific IFN- γ production is often used as a proxy biomarker of vaccine-induced and protection-associated Th1 responses. More recently, the induction of polyfunctional CD4⁺ Th1 cells was found to correlate better with vaccine-induced protection [26] in several model settings, even though the value of polyfunctional T cells as biomarkers of protection in *Mtb* infection remains questionable [27-29]. To estimate the frequency of polyfunctional T cells in the Rv2034-immunized HLA-DR3 mouse vaccine model, intracellular production of TNF, IL-2 and IFN- γ was assessed simultaneously using polychromatic flow cytometry (Figure 3). Splenocytes of immunized HLA-DR3 mice that were *in vitro* restimulated with medium mainly showed TNF⁺ (0.5%) single positive and IFN- γ ⁺ (0.12%) single positive CD4⁺ T cells. *In vitro* restimulation with Rv2034 protein and Rv2034 p31-60 increased the number of IFN- γ ⁺ CD4⁺ T cells to 1.28% and 1.93%, and induced 0.71 % and 0.54 % double (IFN- γ ⁺/TNF⁺) positive CD4⁺ T cells, respectively. The percentages of triple (IFN- γ ⁺/IL-2⁺/TNF⁺) positive CD4⁺ T cells, however, remained low. These data indicate that immunization of HLA-DR3 mice with Rv2034 or Rv2034 p31-60 induces a significant proportion of single and dual functional T cells specific for Rv2034.

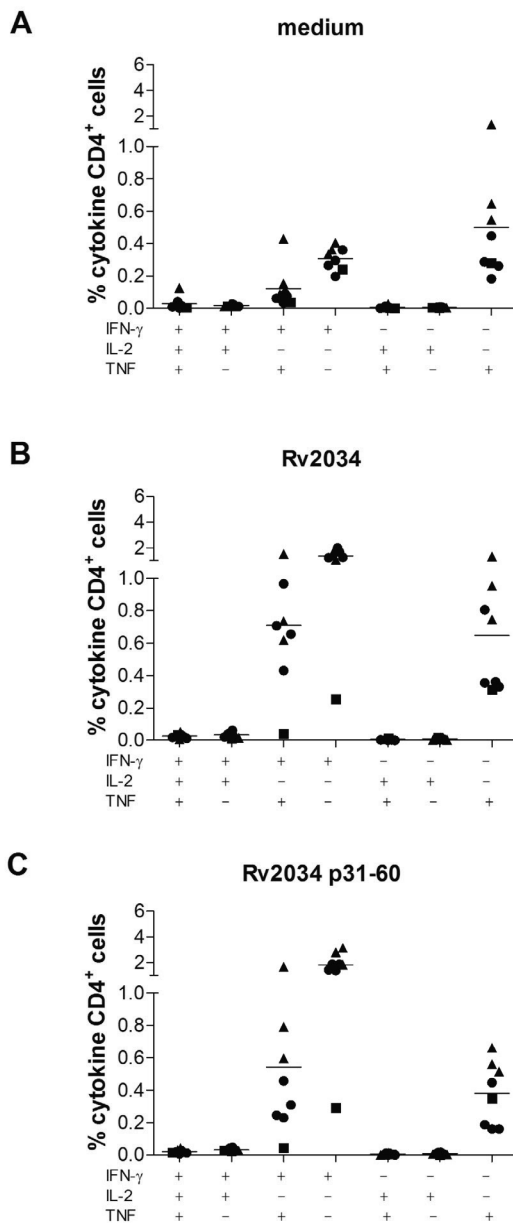


Figure 3. Frequency of polyfunctional CD4⁺ T cells. Percentage of IFN- γ , IL-2 and/or TNF producing CD4⁺ T cells in splenocytes of HLA-DR3 mice immunized with Rv2034 protein or Rv2034 p31-60 in CpG and re-stimulated *in vitro* with medium (A), Rv2034 protein (B) or Rv2034 p31-60 (C). Each symbol represents one mouse immunized with Rv2034 protein (●), Rv2034 p31-60 (▲) or unimmunized (■). The total number of CD4⁺ T cells analyzed in immunized mice was 56,000. Only CD4⁺ populations of $> 5 \times 10^4$ events were analyzed.

Rv2034 immunization induces antibodies directed against *Mtb*

Since we recently showed that even mycobacterial peptides can induce specific antibody responses *in vivo* in HLA-A2 mice [20] and HLA-DR3 [19], we also analyzed the humoral response induced by the Rv2034 protein. A high antibody titer against Rv2034 protein was observed after Rv2034/CpG immunization of HLA-DR3 mice (Figure 4). Mock-immunized mice did not show any antibody reactivity, nor were antibodies detected in Rv2034-immunized mice against an unrelated recombinant protein HPV16 E6. Finally, no antibodies were generated in Rv2034-immunized HLA-A2 mice. These data indicate that Rv2034 protein induces strong cellular as well as humoral immune responses *in vivo*.

Effect of the use of different TLR ligands as adjuvants for Rv2034 immunization

Besides the *Mtb* antigen, the adjuvant used also plays a major role in the induction of an effective Th1/Th2 balance and subsequent protection *in vivo* [30]. In order to estimate the adjuvant-effect on protection-associated Th1 immunity, HLA-DR3 mice were immunized three times with identical amounts of Rv2034 protein adjuvanted with different TLR ligands: PAM3CysK4 (TLR2), Poly(I:C) (TLR3), MPL/TDM (TLR4), Flagellin (TLR5) and R848 (Imidazoquinoline; TLR7). The TLR9 ligand (CpG) as well as the TLR3 ligand, Poly(I:C), induced strong Th1 responses as measured by IFN- γ^+ CD4 $^+$ T cells, whereas the TLR4 ligand, MPL/TDM, induced detectable but significantly reduced numbers of IFN- γ^+ CD4 $^+$ T cells in response to Rv2034 (Figure 5A). TLR2, 5 and 7 ligands did not induce IFN- γ^+ CD4 $^+$ T cells at all. In none of the conditions CD8 $^+$ IFN- γ^+ T cells were detected (data not shown). In contrast, analyses of humoral responses induced by immunization with various adjuvants showed that all different TLR ligands induced strong, Rv2034-specific antibody responses (Figure 5B), indicating a clear separation of these TLR specific adjuvants on the induction of humoral vs. cellular immune responses at least to *Mtb* antigens.

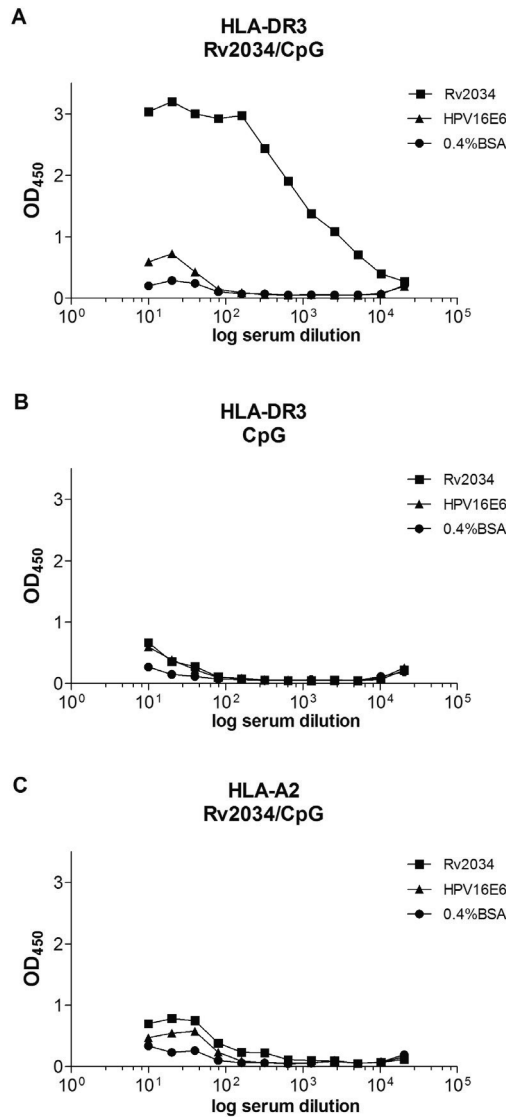


Figure 4. Quantification of serum antibodies to Rv2034. Following immunization of HLA-DR3 mice with Rv2034 in CpG (A) or with CpG alone (B) antibody titer (OD₄₅₀) against Rv2034 (■) was determined by ELISA. As a specificity control HPV16E6 (▲) or 0.4% BSA in PBS alone (●) were tested. Rv2034/CpG immunization of HLA-A2 mice were included as negative control (C). Serum dilutions are shown on the x-axis. All groups included five mice. All mice were separately analyzed.

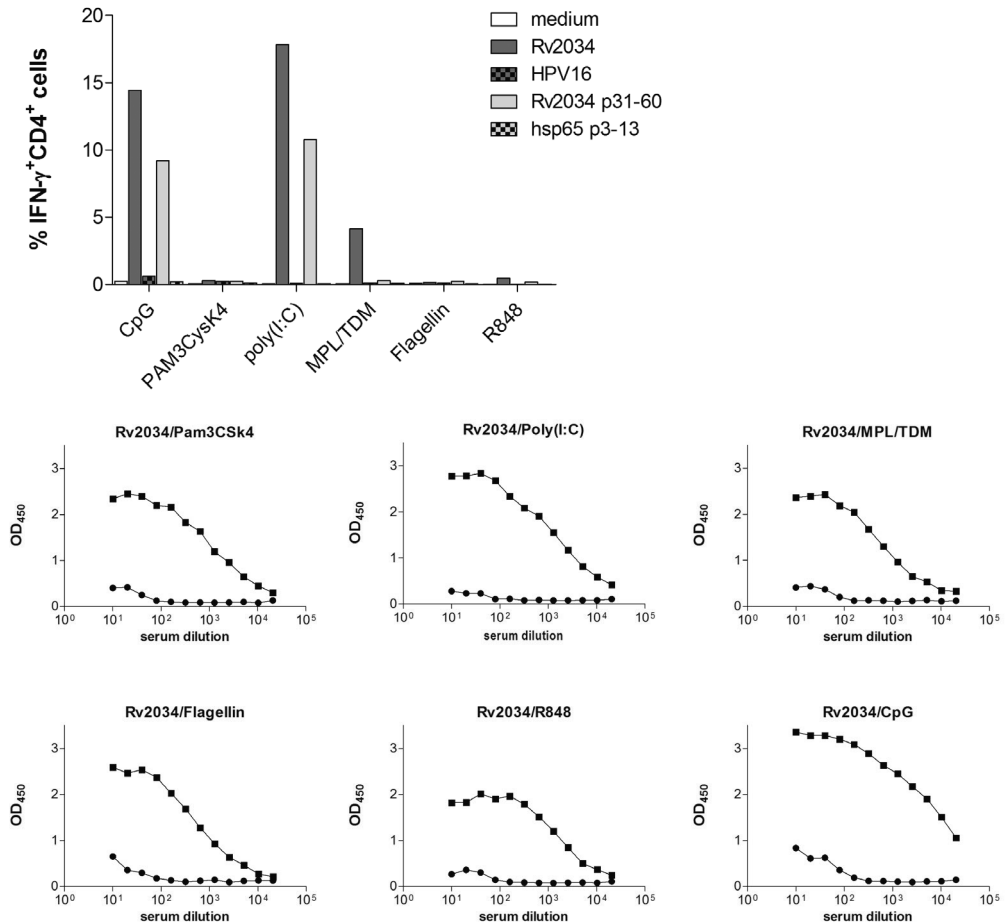
A

Figure 5. Rv2034 immunization of HLA-DR3 mice using different adjuvants. (A) HLA-DR3 mice were immunized three times with Rv2034 protein in either PAM3CysK4, Poly(I:C), MPL/TDM, Flagellin, R848 or CpG. Splenocytes were stimulated *in vitro* with Rv2034 protein, HPV16E6 (control recombinant protein), Rv2034 p31-60 or hsp65 p3-13 (control HLA-DR3-restricted peptide). After 7 days, cells were incubated with medium or fresh antigen for 1h before addition of brefeldin A and analyzed for intracellular IFN- γ production. Adjuvants are indicated on the x-axis.

(B): Sera of HLA-DR3 mice immunized as above or with CpG only were used to determine antibody titers (OD₄₅₀) by ELISA against Rv2034 (■) or BSA (0.4% in PBS) alone (●). Adjuvants are indicated above each figure. Serum dilutions are shown on the x-axis. Groups included 4-5 mice. Results are shown for one animal, representative for each test group.

Protective efficacy of Rv2034 immunization against live *Mtb* challenge

To assess the vaccine potential of the Rv2034 protein adjuvanted by CpG, its prophylactic protective effect was evaluated in a live *Mtb* challenge model, by enumerating the colony forming units (CFU) in the lungs. Interestingly, Rv2034 immunization reduced the number of CFU in the lungs by almost one log (from 6×10^6 to 9×10^5) whereas BCG caused a reduction of over a log to 1.8×10^5 CFU (Figure 6). As a reference, recombinant hybrid protein Ag85-ESAT6 (H1) [31] adjuvanted in CpG was used as well: immunization with H1/CPG decreased the number of *Mtb* bacteria in the lung to a similar extent as Rv2034 (to 5×10^5) being slightly less effective than BCG. The combination of BCG followed by Rv2034/CpG immunization 6 weeks afterwards also resulted in a decreased CFU load, but did not lead to an improvement compared to BCG alone. Importantly, in HLA-DR3^{neg} mice Rv2034 vaccination did not reduce the number of CFU, confirming the HLA-DR3-restriction of the T-cell mediated protection.

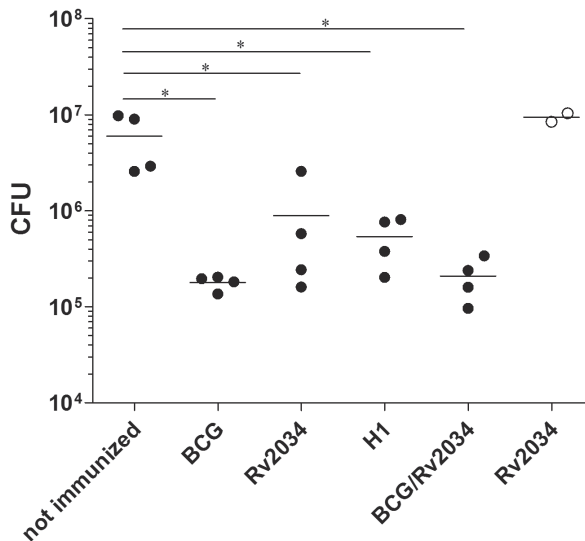


Figure 6. Determination of colony forming units (CFU) in the lungs of *Mtb*-infected mice. CFU were determined in lung homogenates derived from *Mtb* infected HLA-DR3 mice (●) or HLA-DR3^{neg} (○) mice that were left unimmunized or had been immunized with BCG, Rv2034 in CpG, H1 in CpG or immunized with BCG followed by a boost with Rv2034 in CpG as indicated on the x-axis. Protective efficacies are expressed as log₁₀ bacterial counts. All groups included 4 mice.

Discussion

New vaccines against TB need to induce immune responses that target *Mtb* at the primary site of infection, which is the lung. Thus, *Mtb* antigens *in vivo* expressed during pulmonary *Mtb* infection (IVE-TB) might represent interesting vaccine candidates. In this study we have analyzed one of our newly identified IVE-TB proteins, the ArsR protein Rv2034, and show that it is strongly immunogenic *in vivo* in HLA-DR transgenic mice. Immunization of HLA-DR3 mice with Rv2034 induced specific cellular as well as humoral immunity against the protein and its dominant HLA-DR3-restricted epitope p31-50. Importantly, prophylactic immunization of HLA-DR3 mice with Rv2034 in CpG induced a significant protective response to *Mtb* which was similar to BCG, as judged by decreased bacterial numbers upon *Mtb* challenge. Importantly, previous work showed that Rv2034-specific T cells were induced by *Mtb* infection in mice and humans [4], supporting a biological role for Rv2034 in *in vivo* infection and rendering it an interesting vaccine target antigen.

Recently, we have shown that immunization of HLA-DR3 mice with an *Mtb* polypeptide in CpG induced strong cellular as well as humoral (antigen-specific Ig) responses [19]. Similar to Rv2034 immunization, this *Mtb* polypeptide immunization caused a significant reduction of bacterial load upon *Mtb* challenge. In contrast to the role of T cells, the role of *Mtb* antigen-specific antibodies in the control of *Mtb* remains largely unknown and has long been debated [32;33]. Antibodies can induce multiple immune-modulatory effects which can play a role in reducing the bacterial load such as mediating effector functions via binding to Fc receptors on immune cells, including activation of T-cell immunity and antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC) [34]. Indeed, several studies showed that immunoglobulins mediate protection against TB [35-37], whereas the organs of mice that are deficient for humoral immunity [μ -chain knock out (B cell $^{-/-}$ or Ig $^{-}$) and γ -chain subunit knock out (Fc γ -chain $^{-/-}$)] displayed 3- to 8-fold elevated numbers of viable bacilli compared with normal littermates, while splenic IFN- γ responses to whole antigen were unimpaired [38-40]. Moreover, in *Mtb* infected non-human primates active B cells were present in clusters within granulomas. Furthermore, high levels of *Mtb* antigen specific antibodies were detected within *Mtb* infected tissues, indicating that B cells play a role in *Mtb* infection [41]. Thus, Rv2034 antibody responses may substantially contribute to protection against *Mtb* infection.

Studies on animal models have shown that polyfunctional T cells which secrete IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 simultaneously, are functionally superior in vaccine-induced protection and also often induced in *Mtb* vaccine studies [31;42-44]. In our current study, Rv2034 immunization of HLA-DR3 mice induced strong IFN- γ^{+} /TNF $^{+}$ and IFN- γ^{+} CD4 $^{+}$ T cells specific for Rv2034, but no IFN- γ^{+} /TNF $^{+}$ /IL-2 $^{+}$ CD4 $^{+}$ T cells. Importantly, control cytokine producing cells (MiCK-1) displayed IL-2 production demonstrating that IL-2 was detectable using this assay. Thus, despite the lack of substantial numbers of triple positive (IFN- γ^{+} /TNF $^{+}$ /IL-2 $^{+}$) CD4 $^{+}$ T cells, Rv2034 immunization reduced the number of bacteria in HLA-DR3 mice, but not in HLA-DR3 neg littermates or HLA-A2 mice. Therefore, it remains uncertain whether the presence of IFN- γ^{+} /TNF $^{+}$ /IL-2 $^{+}$ CD4 $^{+}$ T cells

is an absolute requirement for vaccine-induced protection against *Mtb*. In view of our data, it is of note that the described *Mtb* vaccine studies also identified double and single cytokine producing CD4⁺ T cells [31;42-44]. Interestingly, it is uncertain whether polyfunctional T cells correlate with TB protection [27-29]. Multiple factors are suggested to be involved in development or detection of polyfunctional T cells such as antigen dose and time point of T-cell analysis [28;45;46]. Also, previous work showed that the frequency of IFN- γ producing CD4⁺ T cells does not directly associate to vaccine-induced protection [47] or might even be irrelevant in killing *Mtb* [48;49]. This further indicates that other (yet unknown) mechanisms are involved in controlling *Mtb* infection [50;51].

The use of TLR9 ligand as adjuvant in mouse models has shown efficient induction of both humoral and cellular immunity [19;20;52]. Of note is that the distribution of TLR9 in mice differs from that in humans being either broadly expressed on all types of DC in C57BL/6 mice or restricted to plasmacytoid DC in humans [53]. Out of the TLRs tested in this study that are broadly expressed on several DC types of both species (TLR2, 3, 4, 5 and 7) [54], only poly(I:C) (TLR3) and to a lesser extent MPL/TDM (TLR 4) induced Th1 responses. In contrast, regardless of the TLR ligand used as adjuvant for Rv2034 immunization in this study (TLR2, 3, 4, 5, 7 or 9), strong Ig responses were observed specific for Rv2034. Thus, these findings clearly show the separation of the effect on humoral and cellular responses by these adjuvants. Similar data have been reported in a single long peptide vaccination model in which all different adjuvants activated DC *in vitro* but only MPL and CpG (TLR4 and TLR9) induced a strong functional T-cell response *in vivo* [30]. This effect depended mainly on the capacity of ligands to mature pro-inflammatory DC and the duration of their *in vivo* stimulatory effect.

Besides the choice of adjuvant, the route of administration might play an important role in the development of robust Th1 immunity upon immunization [30;55]. In this study, adjuvanted *Mtb* antigens were administered subcutaneously representing a custom vaccination route in human vaccination programs.

Immunization with Rv2034/CpG resulted in decreased bacterial load in the lung after *Mtb* challenge, which was dependent on induced HLA-DR3-restricted T-cell immunity. Although Rv2034 immunization resulted in reduction of CFU, boosting BCG with Rv2034 did not further improve the protective effect of BCG alone. In addition, immunization with Ag85B/ESAT6 (H1) in CpG decreased the number of *Mtb* bacteria in the lung to a similar extent as Rv2034, slightly less than the BCG induced reduction. Interestingly, fusion protein H1, Ag85B/ESAT6/Rv2660 (H56), Ag85B/TB10.4 (HyVac4) and Mtb10.4/HspX (MH) showed an improved CFU reduction when used as BCG booster [44;56;57]. However, when administered as a subunit vaccine alone, the fusion proteins showed less protection compared to BCG, in line with previous findings [44;57] and this study. Thus, since Rv2034 is highly expressed in the lungs during *Mtb* infection, incorporating Rv2034 in a fusion protein may induce efficient protection when used as BCG booster. Rv2034 may thus have potential prophylactic and therapeutic vaccine properties when combined with early stage and TB latency proteins into a multistage vaccine [44], which should be capable of targeting relevant different stages

of the *Mtb* infection cycle. Additionally, the immunogenic peptide may also be integrated in a poly-epitope vaccine, containing multiple immunogenic epitopes from different *Mtb* proteins [19].

In summary, we have shown that the IVE-TB protein Rv2034 is immunogenic *in vivo* and has protective efficacy as evidenced by its ability to reduce the bacterial load *in vivo* after a live challenge with *Mtb*. Thus Rv2034 represents an interesting new antigen for subunit TB vaccination.

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Conflict of interest. The authors declare to have no financial/ commercial conflicts of interests. TO is co-inventor of an *Mtb* latency antigen patent, which is owned by LUMC.

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CHAPTER 6

Clonal analysis of the T-cell response to *in vivo* expressed *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* protein Rv2034, using a CD154 expression based T-cell cloning method

Susanna Commandeur, Karin Dijkman, Annemieke H. Friggen, Krista E. van Meijgaarden,
Susan J.F. van den Eeden, Louis Wilson, Jolien J. van der Ploeg-van Schip, Kees L.M.C Franken,
Annemieke Geluk and Tom H.M. Ottenhoff

Department of Infectious Diseases, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands

Submitted

Abstract

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*), remains a leading cause of death worldwide. A better understanding of the role of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, which are both important to TB protection, is essential to unravel the mechanisms of protection and to identify the key antigens seen by these T cells. We have recently identified a set of *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* genes (IVE-TB) which is expressed during *in vivo* pulmonary infection in mice, and shown that their encoded antigens are potently recognized by polyclonal T cells from tuberculin skin test-positive, *in vitro* ESAT6/CFP10-responsive individuals. Here we have cloned T cells specific for one of these newly identified *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) antigens, Rv2034. T cells were enriched based on the expression of CD154 (CD40L), which represents a new method for selecting antigen-specific (low frequency) T cells independent of their specific function. An Rv2034-specific CD4⁺ T-cell clone expressed the Th1 markers T-bet, IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-2 and the cytotoxicity related markers granzyme B and CD107a as measured by flow cytometry. The clone specifically recognized Rv2034 protein, Rv2034 peptide p81-100 and *Mtb* lysate. Remarkably, while the recognition of the dominant p81-100 epitope was HLA-DR restricted, the T-cell clone also recognized a neighboring epitope (p88-107) in an HLA-DR- as well as HLA-DQ1-restricted fashion. Importantly, the T-cell clone was able to inhibit *Mtb* outgrowth from infected monocytes significantly. The characterization of the polyfunctional and *Mtb* inhibitory T-cell response to IVE-TB Rv2034 at the clonal level provides further insights into the potential of IVE-TB antigens as new vaccine candidate antigens in TB.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*), accounts for ≥ 1.5 million deaths each year and remains one of the leading causes of death due to infectious disease. There is no efficient vaccine against TB yet, since the only *Mtb* vaccine available, *Mycobacterium bovis* bacille Calmette-Guerin (BCG), induces limited and variable protection against pulmonary TB, the transmissible form of the disease. Novel *Mtb* vaccines, including improved BCG strains, attenuated *Mtb* strains and subunit vaccines, are currently under study [1]. Given the major role of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells during infection with *Mtb*, better understanding of the role and function of these T cells during *Mtb* infection and post (BCG) vaccination is of key importance to developing further improved vaccines [2].

Advanced flow cytometry allows for detailed characterization of specific T-cell subsets. Due to major advances in the development of improved instruments and reagents an increasing number of parameters can be measured simultaneously [3;4]. The measurement of IFN- γ production is generally used to detect *Mtb* antigen-specific T cells. However, this approach is inherently biased towards detecting Th1 cells, and potentially falls short of detecting other antigen specific T-cell subsets. Although in theory the use of T-cell activation markers, such as CD25 and CD69 can circumvent such bias, substantial levels of CD25 and CD69 expression are detected also in unstimulated samples, indicating that their induction is not strictly antigen induced [5;6]. Expression analysis of CD154 (CD40L) may provide a suitable alternative to overcome these issues. CD154 has previously been described as an antigen-specific induced cell surface marker, which is transiently expressed on T cells upon specific antigen recognition via TCR [6;7]. CD154 interacts with CD40, which leads to subsequent activation of APC, driving both humoral and cellular immunity [8;9].

Recently we identified a set of novel *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) antigens as possible TB vaccine candidate antigens [10]. One of the IVE-TB encoding genes, *Rv2034*, was found to be expressed during inflammatory pulmonary infection, and its encoded protein was strongly recognized by T cells from mycobacteria exposed individuals [10]. Moreover, vaccination of HLA-transgenic mice with Rv2034 protein significantly reduced *Mtb* load (Commandeur *et al.* unpublished data). Understanding the immunological response to IVE-TB antigens, as well as to early-phase expressed (*e.g.* ESAT-6) or late phase-expressed (*e.g.* DosR regulon and Rpf) proteins [11;12] is important to the development of better TB vaccines and TB biomarkers. Therefore we performed a more detailed analysis of the T-cell response to *Mtb* IVE-TB antigen Rv2034 using an Rv2034 specific CD4⁺ T-cell clone that was generated using a novel CD154-expression based cell selection method described here, and analyzed both its specificity and phenotype. The T-cell clone was specific for an HLA-DR restricted epitope in Rv2034 p81-100. Surprisingly, this was neighbored (p88-107) by a both HLA-DR and HLA-DQ presentable epitope, and in agreements with this the p81-107 sequence was found to possess multiple promiscuous MHC class II binding

features. Furthermore, the T-cell clone recognized *Mtb* lysate, and expressed the Th1 markers T-bet, IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 and cytotoxic markers granzyme B and CD107a, consistent with a Th1 phenotype that co-expresses cytotoxicity granule markers. Importantly, the T-cell clone was able to inhibit *Mtb* outgrowth from infected monocytes.

Materials and methods

Recombinant proteins. Recombinant (fusion) proteins were produced as previously described [13]. In short, gene amplified PCR products were cloned by Gateway Technology (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA) in a bacterial expression vector containing an N-terminal hexa-histidine (His) tag. Generated vectors were sequenced to confirm correct insertion of the product. Recombinant proteins were overexpressed in *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 (DE3) and further purified. The size and purity of the proteins were analyzed by gel electrophoresis, using Coomassie brilliant blue and Western blotting using an anti-His antibody (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Endotoxin contents were below 50 EU (endotoxin unit) per mg of recombinant protein as tested using a Limulus Amebocyte Lysate (LAL) QCL-1000 assay (Lonza Inc., Basel, Switzerland). Recombinant proteins were tested to exclude protein non-specific T-cell stimulation and cellular toxicity in IFN- γ release assays using PBMC of *in vitro* PPD-negative, healthy Dutch donors recruited at the Blood Bank Sanquin, Leiden, The Netherlands [14;15]. None of these controls had experienced any known prior contact with TB patients.

Study subjects. Blood samples were collected by venipuncture. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from heparinized venous blood by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation and stored in liquid nitrogen until further use.

Ethical Statement. Donors gave written informed consent before blood donation. The study protocol (P207/99) was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Leiden University Medical Center.

Synthetic peptides. Rv2034 20-mer peptides with 10 aa overlap were synthesized by Peptide 2.0 Inc. (Chantilly, VA, USA) [16]. Generated peptides were analyzed by HPLC to determine purity of peptide products (> 75%). Mass-spectrometry was performed to determine the molecular weight of the peptides.

Enzymatic digestion of *Mtb* lysate. *Mtb* lysate was generated as previously described [10]. To generate hypoxic *Mtb* lysate, H37Rv was grown to late log phase under a flow of nitrogen containing oxygen tension for 24 hours in a shaking incubator at 37 °C [17]. To generate starvation *Mtb* lysate, H37Rv was grown to log phase, washed and incubated for an additional 7 days in PBS

at 37 °C [18]. *Mib* lysates were treated with Proteinase K (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and Lysozyme (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), both at a final concentration of 5 µg/ml for 1 hour at 37 °C in a shaking incubator. Subsequently, the enzymes were inactivated for 90 minutes at 99 °C.

Lymphocyte stimulation test. PBMC (1.5×10^5) were cultured in triplicates in 96-well round-bottom plates (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) and incubated with or without protein (10 µg/ml) in a final volume of 200 µl AIM-V medium (Invitrogen, Breda, Netherlands) at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After 6 days, supernatants were harvested and used for IFN-γ determination. Subsequently, cells were pulsed with [³H]-thymidine (0.5 µCi/well) and incubated 16-18 hours at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Incorporation of [³H]-thymidine was measured using a Wallac 1450 MicroBeta TriLux Liquid Scintillation Counter (Wallac, Turku, Finland).

Generation of CD154 specific T-cell clones. PBMC ($0.5-1 \times 10^6$) were seeded in 96-wells round-bottom plates together with peptide pool mix (1 µg/ml per peptide) in Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium (IMDM; Gibco, Invitrogen, Breda, the Netherlands) containing 10% pooled human serum (HuS) and human IL-2 (Proleukin; Novartis Pharmaceuticals UK Ltd., Horsham, UK) at a final concentration of 100 IU/ml and incubated for 1 week at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After 1 week, the cells were restimulated with peptide pool (1 µg/ml per peptide) and autologous PBMC ($0.5-1 \times 10^6$) in IMDM containing 10% HuS and 1:100 diluted anti-CD40 antibody (clone HB14, Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA) and incubated 16 hours at 37°C and 5% CO₂. CD154 positive cells were sorted and seeded in 96-wells round-bottom plates (0.3, 1 and multiple cell(s)/well) containing IMDM, irradiated (3000 rad) feeders (5×10^4 cells/well), IL-2 (100 IU/ml), 10% HuS and phytohemagglutinin (PHA) at a final dilution of 4 µg/ml (Remel, Oxoid, Haarlem, the Netherlands). After one week IL-2 was added (100 IU/ml) and cultured for approximately another 1-2 weeks until clonal expansion was established.

Magnetic-activated Cell Sorting (MACS) of CD154 positive cells. Stimulated PBMC were collected and labeled with anti-CD154 phycoerythrin (PE) (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA). Subsequently cells were washed and incubated with anti-PE MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA). Labeled and washed cells were applied to a MS Column (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA) to enrich for CD154 positive T cells. Samples collected prior cell sort, CD154-enriched population and flow through were additionally stained for anti-CD3 Pacific Blue (PB) (Biolegend), anti-CD4-Alexa Fluor® 700 (eBioscience), anti-CD8 HorizonV500 (BD Biosciences) (Supplementary figure 1). MACS buffer (PBS supplemented with 2mM EDTA and 2% FCS) was used during cell sorting procedure.

RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis. RNA was isolated from 5×10^6 T cells using 1 ml Trizol[®] Reagent (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Paisley UK) according to the manufacturer's protocol and dissolved in 40 μ l RNase free H₂O (Ambion, Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). RNA concentration was determined by measuring the OD₂₆₀ with the Nanodrop ND1000 (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA). Complementary first strand DNA was synthesized from 0.6 μ g RNA, and with 10 pmol oligoDt primer (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). This mixture was first incubated at 72 °C for 2 minutes to facilitate primer annealing. Superscript III Reverse Transcriptase (1 μ l), 10 nmol dNTPs, 0.1 mM DTT (all Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Paisley, UK) were added to this mixture and subsequently incubated at 42°C for 60 minutes. Amplification was performed by adding 2 μ l of cDNA, 10 nmol dNTPs, 20 pmol oligoDt primer, 20 pmol capswitch primer and 38 μ l H₂O in a total volume of 50 μ l. The amplification PCR program consisted of an initial denaturation cycle of 1 minute at 95 °C, followed by 20 amplification cycles (5 seconds at 95 °C, 5 seconds at 65 °C and 6 minutes at 68 °C). The quality of the amplified cDNA was analyzed by gel electrophoresis.

Determination of T-cell clonality. Clonality of the clone was assessed by PCR amplification of the V β and V α regions, with a constant primer [19] for the C α and C β region and 26 and 37 V region-specific primers for the V β and V α region, respectively [19]. Mastermix contained 3 (V β) or 4 (V α) μ l cDNA, 5 pmol reverse primer, 200 μ M dNTPs, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 unit of GoTaq Flexi DNA polymerase and 1x Green GoTaq Flexi Polymerase Buffer (all Promega, Madison, WI) and 1x bovine serum albumin (BSA, New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA). 5 pmol of each V-specific primer was added. A total volume of 10 μ l was used for PCR amplification. An initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 2 minutes was followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 seconds, annealing at 65 °C (V α) or 60 °C (V β) for 30 seconds and extension at 72 °C for 30 seconds. Finally, a 5 minute extension step was performed at 72 °C. PCR products were analyzed by standard gel electrophoresis. Sequencing templates were amplified using Phusion DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) and a constant primer extended with a M13 sequence (TGTAACGACGCGCCAGT). Amplicons spanning the variable, CDR3 and joining regions were purified using Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR clean up system (Promega, Madison, WI) according to manufacturers' protocol. Samples were sequenced at Baseclear (www.baseclear.com) using a separate M13 primer.

Restimulation of T-cell clones. Irradiated (3000 rad) feeders were pulsed with peptide mix (20 μ g/ml per peptide) for 2 hours and washed. Clones were seeded in 96 wells at 2×10^4 / well together with the feeders (1×10^5 / well). For CD4⁺ T cells, clones were incubated in IMDM containing 10% HuS and 1% LeucoA (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After three days, IL-2 was added (25 IU/ml). For CD8⁺ T cells, clones were incubated in IMDM contain 10% HuS, IL-7 and IL-15 both at a final concentration of 5 ng/ml (PeproTech Inc., Rocky Hill, NJ, USA). After three days IL-2 (50-100 IU/ml) was added.

T-cell subset analysis using flow cytometry. Feeders (3000 rad) were seeded to 96 flat-bottom plate (1×10^5) and incubated for 4-6 hours. The plates were washed three times with RPMI. T cells were added, together with antigen (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$), peptide or peptide pool (5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ per peptide). After 2-4 hours 3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ Brefeldin A (BFA; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was added and incubated overnight (o/n). Cells were harvested and collected in 5 ml round-bottom FACS tubes (BD Biosciences), washed and stained for T-helper markers. For additional flow cytometry, irradiated PBMC (2000 rad) were seeded together with antigen (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) or peptide (5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) to 96 flat-bottom plate (1×10^5) and incubated o/n. plates were washed with RPMI and T cells were added (1×10^5). After 2-4 hours 3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ Brefeldin A (BFA; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was added and incubated overnight (o/n). Cells were harvested and collected in FACS tubes, washed and stained.

Cells were stained with LIVE/DEAD® fixable violet dead cell stain (ViViD; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) prior surface and intracellular staining to discriminate between live and dead cells according to manufacturer's instructions. CD14 and CD19 markers were included to eliminate monocytes and B cells using a DUMP channel [20]. Following ViViD, surface markers were stained in PBS 0.1% BSA for 1/2-1 hour at 4 °C. Subsequently intracellular staining (ICS) was performed using fixation and permeabilization (Intrastain) kit (DakoCytomation, Glostrup, Denmark). Unstimulated and unstained samples were included as negative controls. Different T-cell subset panels were used. All included, *surface staining*; anti-CD3 PE-Cy5 or anti-CD3 PE-Cy7, (both BD Biosciences), anti-CD4 Texas Red (Caltag), anti-CD8 HorizonV500 (BD Biosciences), anti-CD14 PB (Invitrogen) and anti-CD19 PB (Invitrogen), *ICS*; anti-CD154 APC-Alexa eFluor® 780 (eBioscience). In addition, the following markers were used for (i) **T-helper subset panel**, *surface staining*; anti-TCR α/β Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC), *ICS*; anti-IFN- γ Alexa Fluor® 700 (BD Pharmingen), anti-TNF- α PE-Cy7 (BD Biosciences) and anti-IL-2 PE (BD Pharmingen) (anti-Granzyme B APC (Caltag)). (ii) **Transcription factor subset panel**, *ICS*; anti-IFN- γ Alexa Fluor® 700 (BD Pharmingen), anti-T-bet eFluor®660 (eBioscience), anti-GATA-3 PerCP-eFluor® 710 (eBioscience), anti-Ror- γ t PE (eBioscience) and anti-IL-17 FITC (eBioscience). (iii) **Regulatory T cell subset panel**, *surface staining*; anti-CD25 PE-Cy5 (BD Biosciences) and anti-CD39 PE (Biolegend), *ICS*; anti-Foxp3 Alexa Fluor® 700 (eBioscience) and anti-IL-10 APC (Miltenyi Biotec). (iv) **T cell cytotoxicity subset panel**, *ICS*; anti-Granzyme B APC (Caltag), anti-IFN- γ Alexa 700 (BD Pharmingen), anti-CD107a PE-Cy5 (BD Pharmingen) and anti-Perforin PE (BD Pharmingen). Of note, anti-CD107a PE-Cy5 was already added during incubation of the T cells with APC and antigen. Fluorescence minus one (FMO) controls were included for each T-cell subset panel. Data were acquired on a BD LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences) and analyzed using Flowjo version 7.6.5 (Tree Star Inc., Ashland, OR, USA).

Antigen specificity test. T cells (1×10^4) were seeded in 96 flat-bottom plates in presence of HLA class I and/or class II (mis)matched irradiated (2000 rad) PBMC (5×10^4) [21]. T cells were stimulated with either protein (10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), peptide (10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), PHA (2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) or purified protein derivative (PPD; Statens Serum Institute, Copenhagen, Denmark; 5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and incubated for 3 days at 37°C and 5% CO_2 . At day 3, supernatant was harvested and tested for IFN- γ production. Subsequently, cells were pulsed with [^3H]-thymidine and incubated 16-18 hours at 37°C and 5% CO_2 . Incorporation of [^3H]-thymidine was measured using a Wallac 1450 MicroBeta TriLux Liquid Scintillation Counter.

Blocking of HLA-DR and HLA-DQ molecules. Irradiated (2000 rad) PBMC (5×10^4) and monoclonal antibodies (20 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) directed against HLA-DR (B8.11.2) or HLA-DQ (SPV-L3) molecules (provided by Prof. F. Claas, Department of Immunohematology and Blood Transfusion, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands) were seeded in 96 flat-bottom plates and incubated for 2 hours. T cells (1×10^4) and protein antigen, peptide (5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) or PHA (2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) were added and co-incubated for 3 days at 37°C and 5% CO_2 . Both IFN- γ production and proliferation were determined as previously described. Rp15₁₋₁ was included as reference CD4⁺ T-cell clone [22;23].

Western blot analysis. Recombinant protein (0.4 μg), *Mtb* lysates (10 μg) and ultralow molecular weight marker (Color Marker Ultra Low Range; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) were separated under denaturizing conditions using a 17% Tricine sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel (SDS-PAGE) at 100-200 V for 2-3 hours [24]. Proteins were transferred onto a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane by electroblotting (40V; 250 mA). The membranes were blocked using 5% skim milk (Fluka, Biochemika, Sigma Aldrich, 70166), washed (PBS 0.1% Tween20) and incubated with Rv2034-immunized or naive mouse serum. After incubation blots were washed and incubated with secondary horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated rabbit anti-mouse Ig, detecting total IgG, IgA and IgM (P0260 Dako, Glostrup, Denmark). Protein bands were visualized using chemiluminescence (ECL) HRP substrate (AmershamTM ECL SelectTM, GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences AB, Uppsala, Sweden). Blots were developed using Fuji super RX medical X-ray films.

Generation of monocyte derived DC. PBMC were thawed and monocytes were isolated by positive selection using MACS CD14 MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA) following manufacturer's instructions. Monocytes were seeded in T75 flasks (Corning) in RPMI medium containing 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS), 50 U/ml penicillin, 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ streptomycin (Gibco, Paisley, United Kingdom), IL-4 and GM-CSF (Biosource International, Camarillo, CA, USA) both at 10 ng/ml for 6 days to generate monocyte-derived immature DCs. Mature DCs were generated by stimulating DCs with 10 ng/ml lipopolysaccharide (LPS) for an additional 24 hours.

DC differentiation and maturation was validated by flow cytometry using anti-CD14 PE (BD Pharmingen), anti-HLA-DR FITC (BD Pharmingen), anti-CD1a Alexa Fluor® 700 (Biolegend), anti-CD163 Alexa Fluor® 647 (Biolegend), anti-CD80 PE-Cy7 (Biolegend), anti-CD86 PE-Cy5 (BD Pharmingen) and anti-CD3 PB (Biolegend).

Matured DCs were loaded with Rv2034 protein, Rv2034 p81-100 and different conditions of *Mtb* lysate and incubated for 24 hours. Cells were washed and Rv2034 CD4⁺ T-cell clone added. After 2 hours BFA was added and culture incubated o/n. Activation of T cells was determined by detection of CD154 and Th1 markers using the T-helper subset panel.

Mtb inhibition assay. Autologous PBMC were isolated using Ficoll density centrifugation from venous, heparinized blood and plated in quadruplicate cultures (1×10^6 cells/well; assuming 10% monocytes) in 48-wells plates (Costar Corporation, Cambridge, Mass.) in PBS. After overnight incubation at 37°C, PBS was removed and replaced by IMDM containing 10% human serum of 37°C. The adhering monocytes were infected with *Mtb* H37Rv at an MOI of 10. After overnight incubation at 37°C, T-cell clone were added at effector:target (E:T) ratios of 20:1 and 50:1. After an additional o/n incubation, cells were lysed. Lysates were homogenized in PBS and the number of bacteria was determined by culturing serial dilutions of the homogenates on 7H10 agar plates (BD Biosciences) supplemented with BD BBL™ Middlebrook OADC enrichment (100 ml per bottle; BD Biosciences). Colonies were counted after 2-3 weeks incubation at 37 °C.

Results and discussion

Generation of T-cell clones for subsequent phenotypic and functional analysis

We previously reported that *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) antigens have significant vaccine potential [10] [Commandeur et al. unpublished data]. It is thus important to characterize the underlying immune responses to these antigens in more detail, particularly in humans. To this end, clonally expanded antigen specific T cells are powerful tools [25;26]. To generate IVE-TB specific T cells we used a T-cell cloning method based on CD154 expression to enrich for antigen-specific T cells irrespective of function. We selected two *Mtb* antigens; the well-studied TB10.4 protein [27] and the recently described *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) antigen Rv2034 [10].

First, PBMC of an *in vitro* PPD⁺ donor known to respond to these antigens (Figure 1A and 1B) were stimulated with peptide pools from TB10.4 or Rv2034 for one week in the presence of IL-2, followed by re-stimulation with the peptide pool for 16 hours, in the presence of anti-CD40 antibodies to inhibit CD154-CD40 interactions [6] preventing loss of surface expressed CD154 [28;29]. CD154 positive cells were then sorted using Magnetic-activated Cell Sorting (MACS) and seeded at 0.3 or 1 cell per well densities as described in detail in the materials and methods section. To analyze the antigen specificities of the expanded T-cell clones, cell populations were gated based on live CD14-CD19-CD3⁺ T cells. For TB10.4, eight clones showed responses towards

TB10.4 peptide pool stimulation (Table 1). Out of these, five T-cell clones were CD154⁺CD4⁺ and produced either IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2, or TNF- α and IL-2. Two clones appeared to be CD8⁺ T cells that produced IFN- γ , with one of these producing a relatively low amount of IL-2 as well. CD154 is known to be expressed on activated CD4⁺ T cells, but can also be upregulated on a fraction of CD8⁺ T cells [30]. However, none of the CD8⁺ T cells expressed CD154. Somewhat surprisingly, one T-cell clone was CD3⁺/CD4⁻/CD8⁻, (double negative (DN) T cells) and did not express CD154 either, nevertheless, CD3⁺ CD4⁻/CD8⁻ are able to express CD154 [31]). This DN T-cell clone produced IFN- γ in response to TB10.4 antigen. The remaining expanded T-cell cultures were TB10.4 non-responsive and are indicated in Table 1.

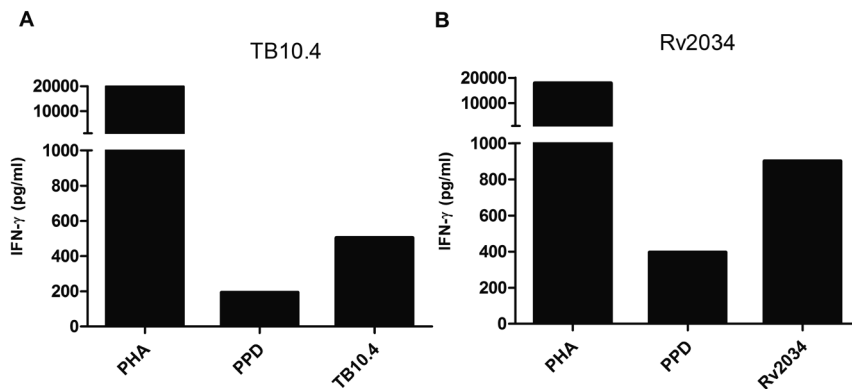


Figure 1. PBMC recognition of TB10.4 and IVE-TB antigen Rv2034. PBMC from a PPD⁺ donor were stimulated with different stimuli for 6 days and IFN- γ production (pg/ml) was determined in the supernatants. Both TB10.4 protein (10 μ g/ml) (A) and Rv2034 protein (10 μ g/ml) (B) were analyzed as well as control mitogen PHA and *Mtb* derived PPD (A and B). Medium values (unstimulated PBMC) were subtracted.

Table 1. Analysis of TB10.4 clonal cultures

Clone	Subset ^a	CD154	IFN- γ	TNF- α	IL-2
1	CD4	+	-	+	+
2	CD4	+	+	+	+
3	DN	-	+/-	-	-
4	CD4	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-
5	CD4	+	+	+	+
6	CD8	-	+	-	+/-
7	CD8	-	+	-	-
8	CD4	+	+/-	+	+

^a Single live CD14⁺CD19⁻CD3⁺ cells (population > 100 cells)

Non-responding clonal cultures included CD4 (n=9), CD8 (n=2) and DN (n=2) cells

DN = Double negative

++ = > 1% positive cells

+/- = <1% positive cells

For Rv2034, eight antigen responsive T-cell clones were generated using the same approach as described for TB10.4, among which three were CD4⁺ T cells (Table 2). One of these CD4⁺ T-cell cultures showed specific CD154, IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 expression, whereas the remaining two only produced IL-2 in response to antigen. All three identified CD8⁺ T cells produced IFN- γ . As for TB10.4, two potential clones appeared to be DN T cells and also showed a potential to produce IFN- γ and/or IL-2. Proliferating Rv2034 non-responsive T-cell clones are also indicated in Table 2. Thus, using CD154 sorting we were able to generate IVE-TB Rv2034 induced T-cell clones which included CD4⁺, CD8⁺ and DN T cells. Interestingly, besides CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells also DN T cells have been associated with control of intracellular bacteria including *Mtb* [32;33]. Furthermore, DN T cells also show possible regulatory functions [34;35]. Besides classically HLA-class Ia restricted cells, the CD8⁺ T-cell clones we isolated might also represent circulating alternative T-cell subsets, such as mucosal associated invariant T (MAIT) cells [36;37] or HLA-E restricted CD8 T cells [38].

Table 2. Analysis of Rv2034 clonal cultures

Clone	Subset ^a	CD154	IFN- γ	TNF- α	IL-2
1	DN	-	-	-	+/-
2	CD4	-	-	-	+/-
3	CD8	-	+	-	-
4	CD8	-	+	-	-
5	DN	-	+/-	-	+/-
6	CD4	+	+	+	+
7	CD8	-	+	-	-
8	CD4	-	-	-	+/-

^a Single live CD14⁺CD19⁺CD3⁺ cells (population > 100 cells)

Non-responding clonal cultures included CD4 (n=18), CD8 (n=0) and DN (n=1) cells

DN = Double negative

+ = > 1% positive cells

+/- = <1% positive cells

CD4⁺ T-cell clone specific for *Mtb* IVE-TB antigen Rv2034

Thus, both TB10.4 and Rv2034 T-cell clones could be generated using the CD154 sorting method. As the main aim of this work was the analysis of IVE-TB specific T-cell responses, we further studied a CD4⁺ T-cell clone that responded to Rv2034 peptide pool stimulation by CD154, IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 expression (Figure 2). First, its clonality was further confirmed by PCR for both TCR α and TCR β . The detected variable regions consisted of V α 13, V α 27 and V β 14, following Arden nomenclature [39] (data not shown). V α 27 was predicted to be an unproductive TCRA rearranged sequence due to an out-of-frame junction, whereas V α 13 was successfully rearranged (the international ImMunoGeneTics database (IMGT)). Thus the clone represents a truly clonal population based on TCR genotyping.

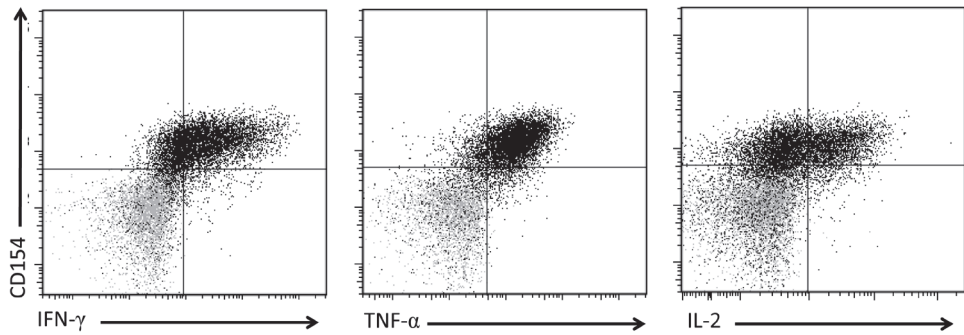


Figure 2. Rv2034 responsive CD4⁺ T-cell clone phenotype. The shown CD4⁺ T-cell clone that had been expanded was restimulated with the Rv2034 peptide pool and analyzed for the expression of CD154 expression, IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2 (black dots). CD154 and Th1 cytokine expression of non-activated T cells is indicated in grey dots. Dot blots show single live CD14⁺CD19⁺CD3⁺CD4⁺ T cells.

Identification of immunogenic epitope(s) of Rv2034 recognized by the CD4 T-cell clone

To identify the specific T cell epitope(s) of Rv2034, the CD4⁺ T-cell clone was restimulated with single 20-mer peptides from Rv2034. As expected, the Rv2034 peptide pool was strongly recognized by the clone as measured by IFN- γ production and T-cell proliferation (Figure 3A). Rv2034 p81-100 was identified as the dominant immunogenic epitope, while variable responses were observed to Rv2034 p88-107, which overlapped 13 amino acids with Rv2034 p81-100. In addition, recombinant protein Rv2034 and fusion protein Ag85B/ESAT-6/Rv2034 were both recognized, suggesting that Rv2034 epitope is adequately processed from this protein. The fusion protein Ag85B/ESAT-6/Rv2034 includes two early infection phase expressed *Mtb* proteins (Ag85B and ESAT6; together designated as H1), fused to the *in vivo* expressed Rv2034 protein. Inclusion of multiple infection phase related *Mtb* proteins in a single fusion construct has been shown to improve vaccine efficacy in both mouse and non-human primate models of TB [40;41], especially if the antigens are expressed during different phases of *Mtb* infection. It is therefore relevant that the immunogenic epitope present in Rv2034 p81-100 is efficiently processed and presented from both the Rv2034 protein and the trimeric Ag85B/ESAT6/Rv2034 fusion protein. The negative control proteins HPV16E6, Ag85B and ESAT6/CFP10 fusion protein, and the negative control peptide HIV-GAG were not recognized, in agreement with the strict Rv2034-specificity. As expected, expression of CD154 and Th1 cytokines was detected upon stimulation of the CD4⁺ T-cell clone with Rv2034 p81-100 (Figure 3B) and Rv2034 protein (Figure 3C) whereas no activation was observed upon stimulation with negative control peptide p11-30 of Rv2034 (Figure 3D), further demonstrating the specificity of this CD4⁺ T cell-clone for Rv2034 p81-100.

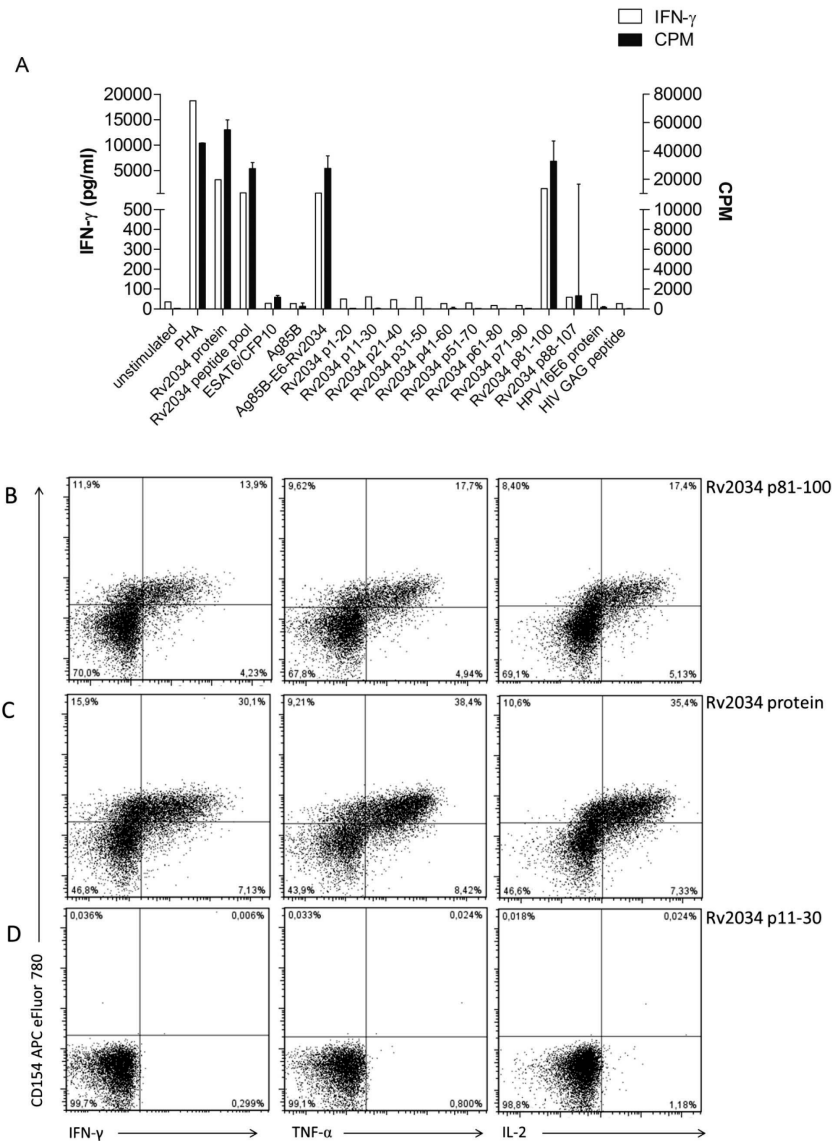


Figure 3. Identification of immunogenic epitope(s) of Rv2034 recognized by CD4 T-cell clone.

To identify the immunogenic epitope(s) in Rv2034, the CD4⁺ T-cell clone was stimulated with all individual Rv2034 20-mer peptides with 10 aa overlap; Rv2034 recombinant protein; Rv2034 peptide pool; control ESAT6/CFP10 fusion protein; an Ag85B/ESAT6/Rv2034 trimeric fusion protein; and negative and positive control conditions. Autologous irradiated PBMC were used as APCs. Both IFN- γ (open bars) and T-cell proliferation (black bars) were determined (A). To determine the Rv2034 p81-100 specific response by flow cytometry, the CD4⁺ T-cell clone was stimulated with Rv2034 p81-100 (B), Rv2034 protein (C) and Rv2034 p11-30 (D) using autologous irradiated PBMC, in the presence of BFA. Intracellular CD154 and Th1 cytokine expression was determined. Flow cytometry plots show single live CD14⁺CD19⁺CD3⁺CD4⁺ T cells, the frequency of all subsets of CD3⁺CD4⁺ T cells are indicated in the corners of each plot.

T-cell subset panel analysis

The Rv2034 responding CD4⁺ T-cell clone was subsequently analyzed for Th17, Th2, regulatory and cytotoxic T cell (CTL) markers to further specify its functional activities. The Rv2034 p81-100 peptide-induced CD154 expression correlated with IFN- γ expression (Figure 4A) while no IL-17 expression was observed. Transcription factor analysis revealed expression of T-bet (Figure 4B), a transcription factor that regulates Th1 development and controls IFN- γ production [42;43], but there was no expression of GATA-3 (Th2 [44]), ROR γ t (Th17 [45;46]) or FOXP3 (Treg [47]). T-bet was constitutively expressed in both p81-100 peptide stimulated and unstimulated T cells. Furthermore, the clone did not reveal any specific combination(s) of other reported T-cell regulatory markers (Figure 4C): no IL-10 could be detected although CD25 and CD39 [48] were constitutively expressed, which, however, are also expressed by activated non-Tregs [49;50]. Of note, CD25 expressing non-Treg cells mostly express intermediate levels of CD25 (CD25^{int}), whereas Tregs typically express high levels of CD25 (CD25^{hi}) [49]. The expansion of our T-cell clone was mediated by IL-2 which theoretically could have enhanced CD25 expression [51]. Finally, the T-cell clone expressed granzyme B and CD107a but no detectable perforin (Figure 4D). The expression of granzyme B and CD107a was antigen-stimulation dependent. Cytotoxic CD4⁺ T cells have been reported not only in viral but also in mycobacterial infections [52-54]. The expression of the degranulation marker CD107a indicates the release of lysosomal products from granules after antigen-specific activation of the T cell, which likely includes granzyme B. Anti-CD107a antibodies were administered during antigen stimulation of the T-cell clone, because once CD107a is released with its vesicles' granule contents and becomes integrated in the membrane of the cell, the antibodies will bind to CD107a and are subsequently internalized together with CD107, enabling detection of degranulation. Further studies are required to determine whether granzysin and other granzymes are released by the T-cell clone. These data were obtained by ICS using brefeldin A to accumulate intracellular cytokines by preventing their secretion. All subset conditions were also analyzed using monensin, which acts as protein transport inhibitor via disruption of trans-Golgi protein transport whereas BFA inhibits protein transport between endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and the Golgi apparatus. Monensin, however in our hands did not enhance any of the responses (data not shown). Taken together, these observations show that the Rv2034-specific CD4⁺ T cell-clone is a pure Th1 clone expressing IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-2 and several cytotoxic granule markers.

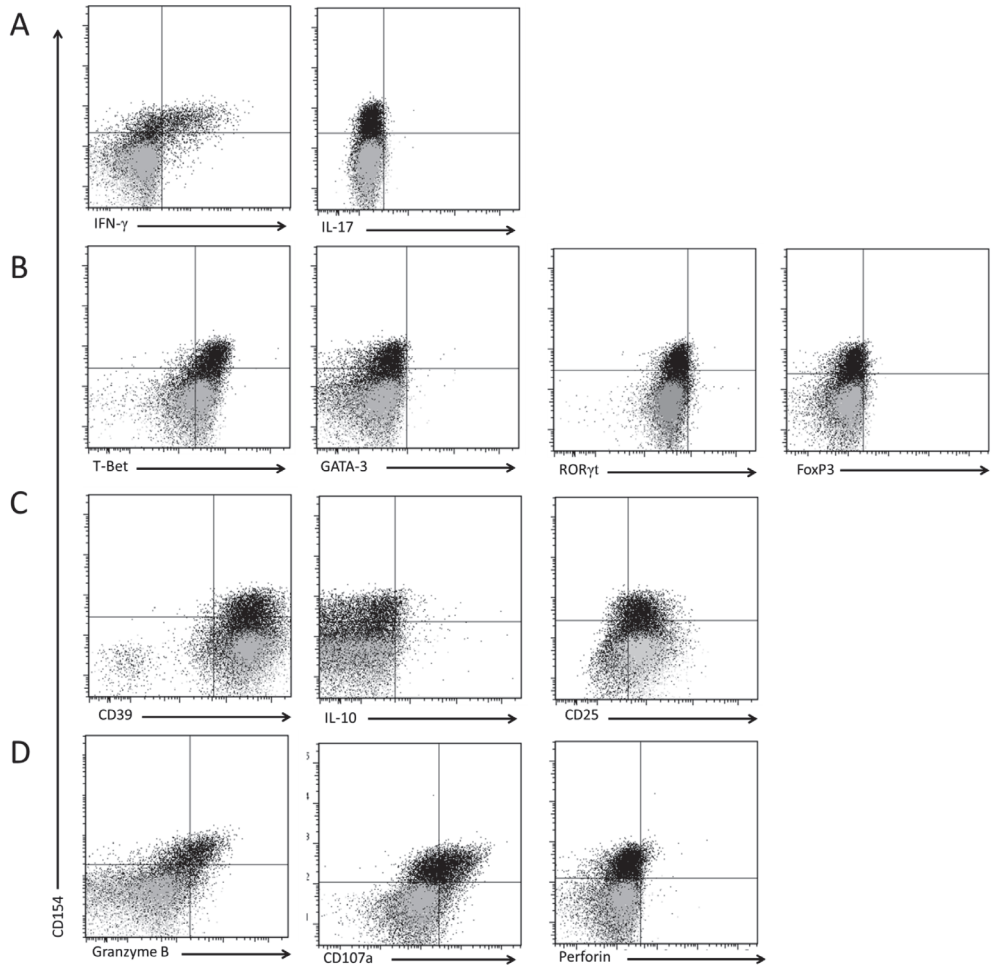


Figure 4. Subset analysis of the CD4 T-cell clone. The CD4⁺ T-cell clone was stimulated with Rv2034 p81-100 in presence of BFA and analyzed the expression of CD154 (A-D), IFN-γ and IL-17 (A) and additional markers: the transcriptional factor markers T-bet (Th1), GATA-3 (Th2), RORγt (Th17) and FoxP3 (Treg) (B); T-cell regulatory markers: CD39, IL-10 and CD25 (C); T-cell cytotoxicity markers: Granzyme B, CD107a and Perforin (D). Markers were analyzed using the mAb subset panels described in the materials and methods section. Stimulated T cells are indicated in black and unstimulated T cells in grey. Dot blots show single live CD14⁺CD19⁺CD3⁺CD4⁺ T cells.

Determination of genetic HLA-restriction of CD4⁺ T-cell clone

To identify the genetic HLA-restriction of T-cell recognition of Rv2034 p81-100, the T-cell clone was cultured with (irradiated) PBMC from donors expressing various matching or mismatching HLA class II alleles in the presence of Rv2034 p81-100 (Figure 5A), Rv2034 protein (Figure 5B) and Ag85B/ESAT-6/Rv2034 fusion protein (Figure 5C). The autologous HLA genotype was HLA-DR2(15),-DR3(17),-DQ1(6),-DQ2,-DR51,-DR52. As expected, completely HLA-DRB1 and HLA-DQ mismatched PBMC (HLA-DR11,13 and HLA-DQ3(7)) failed to present peptide or protein antigens to the T-cell clone, even though these cells were matched for HLA-DRB3 (DR52), indicating that DR52 was not involved in Rv2034 p81-100 presentation. Both HLA-DR2(15)⁺/DQ1(6)⁺ and HLA-DR3(17)⁺/DQ1(5)⁺ PBMC induced strong T-cell activation. Since HLA-DR2(15) is in strong genetic linkage disequilibrium with HLA-DQ1(6) it was impossible to match for HLA-DR2(15) while mismatching for HLA-DQ1(6). HLA-DQ1(5,6)⁺ PBMC, which were mismatched for HLA-DR3(17) and HLA-DR2(15), also induced T-cell proliferation and IFN- γ in response to Rv2034 (fusion) protein and p81-100, whereas HLA-DQ2⁺ PBMC failed to present antigen. While the results were suggestive of HLA-DR3 and HLA-DQ1 presentation, the addition of purified monoclonal antibodies specific for only HLA-DR but not HLA-DQ backbone determinants resulted in a strong reduction of autologous APC presented Rv2034 p81-100 induced T-cell proliferation (Figure 5D). Thus the autologous responses towards Rv2034 p81-100 is predominantly HLA-DR and not HLA-DQ-restricted.

Surprisingly, however, while responses to the Rv2034 peptide p81-100 were HLA-DR restricted, the response to the whole Rv2034 protein was inhibited both by HLA-DR and by HLA-DQ-blocking antibodies (Figure 5D). Thus, while the epitope contained with p81-100 is HLA-DR restricted, the Rv2034 protein also contains an HLA-DQ1(6) restricted epitope sequence that can be recognized by the same T-cell clone. Of note, variable recognition was observed for Rv2034 p88-107 by the T-cell clone (Figure 4A and data not shown). Strong responses to p81-100 were observed at a concentration of 1 μ g/ml (Figure 5D), whereas no responses to p88-107 could be detected at this concentration (data not shown). However, at a concentration of 5 μ g/ml, p88-107 was able to activate the T-cell clone and, importantly, this could be blocked by both HLA-DR and HLA-DQ antibodies (Figure 5D). Thus, the Rv2034 p81-107 sequence possesses HLA-DR and HLA-DQ binding epitopes that were recognized by a single, apparently promiscuous CD4⁺ T-cell clone.

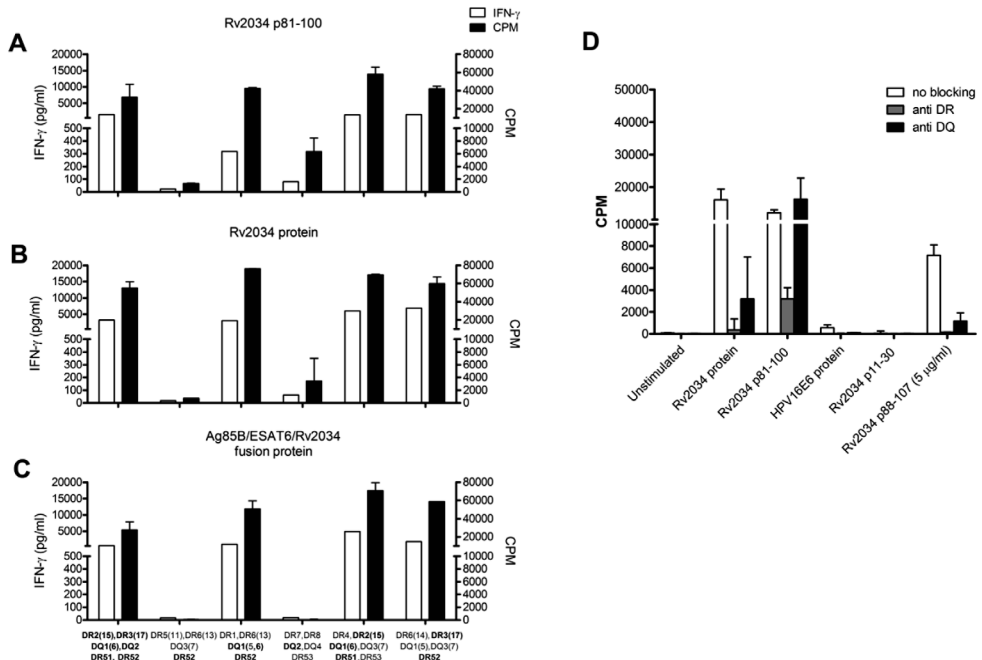


Figure 5. Restriction of Rv2034 p81-100 and p88-107 presentation by HLA-DR and -DQ molecules. To determine the HLA-DR and -DQ restriction of Rv2034 p81-100 responding CD4⁺ T-cell clone, T cells were incubated with Rv2034 p81-100 (A), Rv2034 protein (B) or Ag85B/ESAT6/Rv2034 fusion protein (C), in the presence of irradiated PBMC with (mis)matched HLA-DR and/or DQ molecules. Both IFN-γ production (white bars) and proliferation (CPM) (black bars) was determined. CPM bars represent median ranging the highest and lowest value. Matching HLA alleles are indicated in bold on the X-axis. HLA-DR and HLA-DQ molecules of APCs pulsed with either Rv2034 protein, Rv2034 p81-100, Rv2034 p88-107 (5 µg/ml) or control conditions, were blocked using monoclonal antibodies directed against HLA-DR or -DQ [21], and T-cell proliferation was analyzed (CPM) (D).

In silico HLA class II peptide binding predictions (SYFPEITHI [55], NetMHCIIpan 2.1, NetMHCII 2.2 and IEDB) revealed that Rv2034 p81-100 (LRTDLDRFWTRALTGYAQLI) indeed contains sequences with high predicted binding affinity for multiple HLA-DRB1 and HLA-DQ molecules (Supplementary table 1). HLA-DR2(15) and HLA-DR3(17) show binding potential for LDRFWTRAL, which is located at the beginning of the peptide while the TRALTGYAQ sequence has predicted potential to bind to HLA-DQ1(6). Although Rv2034 p88-107 (FWTRALTGYAQLIDSEGGDDT) contains a potential epitope (ALTGYAQLI) that could bind to HLA-DR2(15), it contains limited predicted epitopes available for HLA-DR3(17). Nevertheless, predicted HLA-DQ1(6) epitopes were identified (TRALTGYAQ and TGYAQLIDS) (Supplementary table 2). As a control, very few predicted epitopes were observed for Rv2034 p11-30 (Supplementary table 3), indicating that the p81-107 sequence has a rather unique high (predicted) epitope density. These data are best explained by a model in which the T-cell clone

recognizes Rv2034 p81-100 and Rv2034 p88-107 via multiple HLA molecules, possibly including HLA-DR2, -DR3 as well as HLA-DQ1 registers, but that the dominant response to the protein is HLA-DR restricted. Such promiscuous peptides, capable of being presented by multiple HLA molecules, have been shown for several mycobacterial proteins [56], including HspX (16 kDa protein) [57], TB10.4 [58] and Hsp65 [59]. In addition, some (*Mtb* antigen) studies showed possible presentation of a single epitope, specific for one clone, via both HLA-DR and HLA-DQ [57;60]. Other studies also demonstrated promiscuity of viral epitope presentation [61;62]. The presentation of a specific epitope via multiple HLA molecules has been described as HLA cross-restriction [63;64] and this promiscuity phenomenon is suggested to be extensively present [65;66]. Promiscuous *Mtb* peptides are particularly interesting for development of novel *Mtb* vaccines since they would be able to cover many different HLA alleles throughout different populations.

Recognition of Rv2034 in *Mtb* lysate

We next wished to demonstrate recognition of native *Mtb* expressed Rv2034 protein by the T-cell clone in order to better understand its possible role during *Mtb* infection. First we examined whether Rv2034 protein was expressed in *Mtb* lysates by western blot analysis. Using sera of Rv2034-immunized (HLA-DR3 transgenic) mice, expression of Rv2034 was identified in both log phase *Mtb* lysate and *Mtb* grown during hypoxic and starvation conditions (Figure 6A). Although the protein size was predicted to be approximately 12 kDa (<http://www.sciencegateway.org/tools/proteinmw.htm>), the native Rv2034 present in the lysates was larger than expected. The recombinant Rv2034 protein includes a histidine tag and thus was expected to have a molecular weight of ~14 kDa. Since Rv2034 contains dimerization sites [67], this higher relative molecular mass could be due to formation of multimers. Alternatively but not mutually exclusive, post-translational modifications or binding to other molecules might be responsible for the higher molecular weight. Two bands were clearly visible, the smallest band likely relating to Rv2034 protein monomer, whereas the upper band probably indicates multimer formation. The binding of antibodies present in the sera of Rv2034-immunized mice was specific since no bands were observed using sera from non-immunized HLA-DR3 mice. Indeed, Rv2034 protein was also previously identified in *in vitro* grown *Mtb* cultures [10;68;69], specifically in lipid (membrane) associated fractions, indicating that the protein is indeed expressed by *Mtb*.

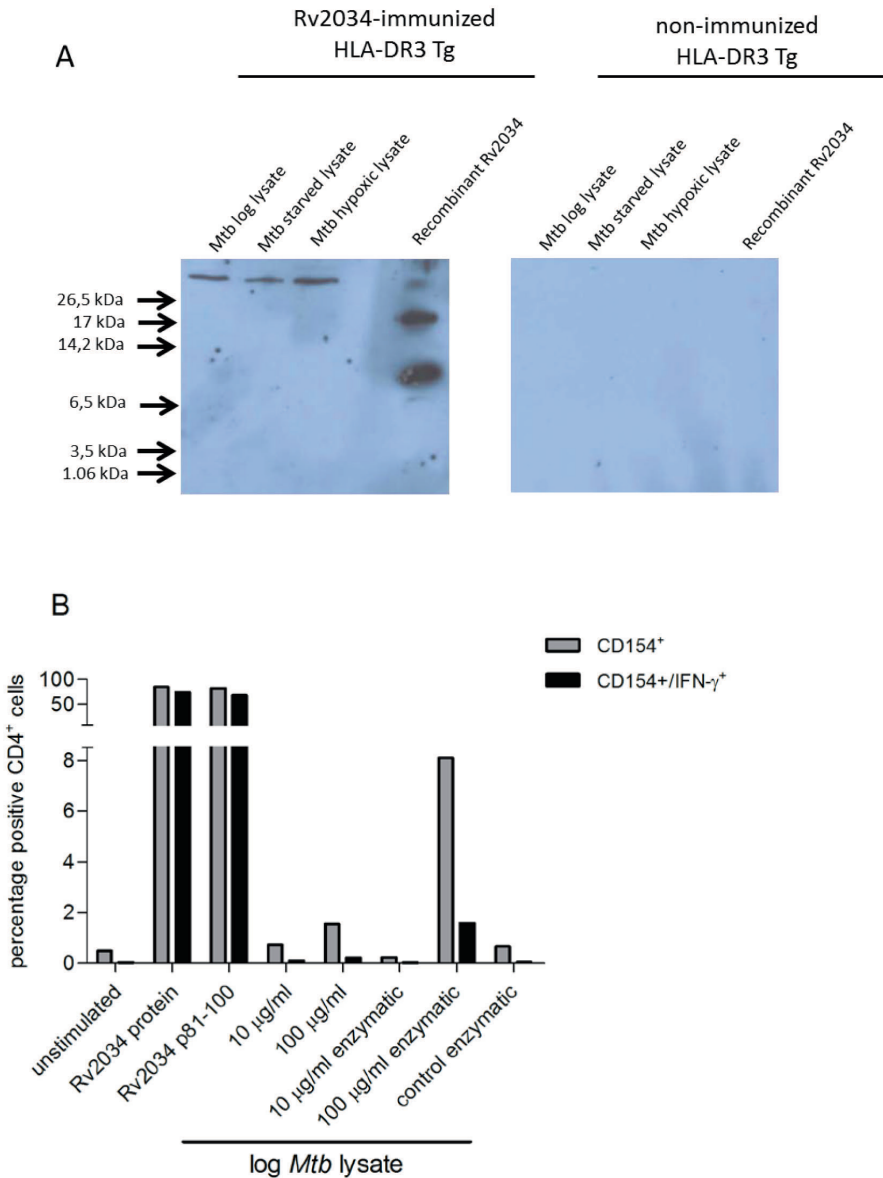


Figure 6. Recognition of native Rv2034 in *Mtb* lysate by CD4⁺ T-cell clone. *Mtb* lysates (10 μ g) derived from *Mtb* grown in log-phase-, starvation- and hypoxic- conditions and recombinant protein Rv2034 (0.4 μ g) were analyzed by western blotting for their recognition by specific antibodies using sera of Rv2034-immunized or non-immunized HLA-DR3 transgenic mice (A). Monocyte derived matured DCs were loaded with Rv2034 p81-100, Rv2034 protein and different conditions of *Mtb* lysate for 24h. Subsequently, the CD4⁺ T-cell clone was incubated with these antigen-loaded DCs and after 2 hours BFA was added and incubated o/n. CD154 and IFN- γ expression was determined using flow cytometry. Percentage of responding CD4⁺CD154⁺ (grey bars) and CD4⁺CD154⁺IFN- γ ⁺ (black bars) T cells are given (B).

We next analyzed the T-cell clone's reactivity against *Mtb* lysate to see if the T-cell clone was able to detect the native Rv2034 protein. HLA-matched matured dendritic cells (DC) were used as antigen-presenting cells and activated CD4⁺CD154⁺ and CD4⁺CD154⁺IFN- γ ⁺ responding T cells analyzed (Figure 6B). Both Rv2034 protein and Rv2034 p81-100 strongly activated the T-cell clone, whereas *Mtb* lysate at 10 μ g/ml did not. Increasing the *Mtb* concentration to 100 μ g/ml, however, induced CD154 expression. Rv2034 might be difficult for DC to process and present due to possible posttranslational modifications, dimer formation [67], or associations to other molecules (Rv2034 is lipid or membrane associated [68;69]). It should be noted, however, that Rv2034 is efficiently recognized by T cells from tuberculin skin test-positive, *in vitro* ESAT6/CFP10-responsive individuals in whole blood or PBMC assays [10]. To improve processing of the lysate by the APC, the lysate was further digested and homogenized using proteinase K (serine protease) and lysozyme (peptidoglycan degradation) enzymes. Treating the *Mtb* lysate concentration resulted in an increased population of activated CD154⁺ and CD154⁺/IFN- γ ⁺ CD4⁺ T cells. Importantly, incubating the cells with a control sample containing the same amount of inactivated enzymes as used for the lysate did not show any recognition, indicating that T-cell activation is *Mtb* lysate-specific.

Nonetheless, activation of the T-cell clone using the enzyme treated *Mtb* lysate did not reach the full level of activation as observed for recombinant Rv2034 protein and Rv2034 p81-100. Obviously, *Mtb* lysate is a very crude product containing many different proteins as well as other molecules and fragments, such that only low levels of Rv2034 might be present in the lysate. Furthermore, only activation was observed after enzyme treatment verifying that Rv2034 was associated to certain structures that prevented or hindered correct processing by the matured DC. A lysate concentration dependent effect on T cells has been observed previously [52].

The T-cell clone thus expressed cytotoxic markers (Figure 4) and recognized native Rv2034 in *Mtb* lysate (Figure 6B). To test whether the T-cell clone could directly inhibit *Mtb* outgrowth from infected APCs, autologous monocytes were infected with *Mtb* and the T-cell clone was added in an effector/target ratio of 20:1 and 50:1. Interestingly, addition of the T-cell clone resulted in a significant decrease of CFU in a dose-dependent fashion (Figure 7). Thus the T-cell clone is able to inhibit the outgrowth of *Mtb* from infected cells directly.

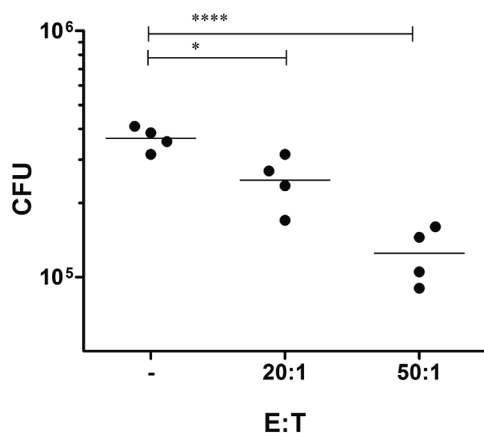


Figure 7. CD4⁺ T-cell clone has *Mtb* inhibitory properties. Autologous PBMC were loaded with *Mtb* (10 MOI) and CD4⁺ T-cell clone was added at different effector/target (E/T) ratios as indicated on the x-axis. CFU were determined after o/n incubation. Four replicates were performed for each condition. The horizontal bar indicates the mean value of the four replicates.

Concluding remarks

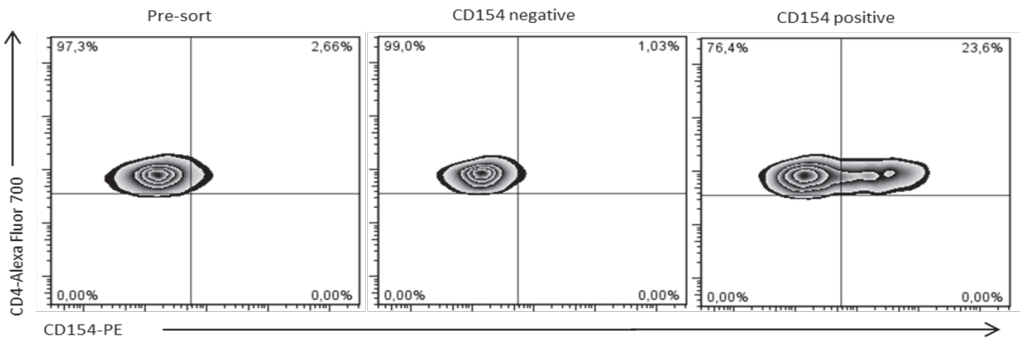
A better understanding of T-cell immunity during infection and following vaccination is important in many diseases, including tuberculosis. Here, we describe an approach that can be used for the rapid generation of antigen specific T-cell clones irrespective of functional properties such as cytokine secretion, in order to study antigen specific T-cell subsets in more detail, even for low frequency responses. Both CD4⁺, CD8⁺ and DN T-cell clones could be generated, which showed responses to the secreted TB10.4 or the IVE-TB Rv2034 *Mtb* antigens. An Rv2034 specific CD4⁺ T-cell clone was further analyzed, its antigen-specificity confirmed for (native) Rv2034 protein, a dominant peptide epitope identified and a promiscuous HLA-DR/DQ restriction pattern elucidated. Furthermore, the T-cell clone expressed Th1 and cytotoxicity related markers, and had significant *Mtb* inhibition activity. Using this approach, the T-cell responses to different *Mtb* specific antigens, including phase-dependent and IVE-TB antigens, can be further analyzed which should help to understand the immune response to *Mtb*. This can eventually be useful for developing novel TB vaccines and improved therapies.

Acknowledgements

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Conflict of interest. TO is co-inventor of an *Mtb* latency antigen patent, which is owned by LUMC.

Supplementary Figure 1.



Supplementary Figure 1. MACS sort of CD154 positive T cells from Rv2034 peptide pool stimulated PBMC. PBMC were stimulated for 16 hours and labeled with anti-CD154 PE and anti-PE microbeads and sorted. A small sample was collected to analyze the positive CD154 positive population. Subsequently after sorting CD154 negative and CD154 positive collections were stained as well.

Supplementary Table I. HLA-DR and DQ binding predictions Rv2034 p81-100 (LRTDLDRFWTRALTGYAQLI)

HLA-DR	Allele molecule	SYFPEITHI *	NetMHCIIpan 2.1	NetMHCII 2.2	IEDB	IEDB
Sequence	HLA-DRB1	Score	Affinity nM	Affinity nM	arbpypthon (ARB) Affinity nM	SMM Affinity nM
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0101	25	9.71 (SB) WTRALTGYA	18.2 (SB) TRALTGYAQ	21.7 (SB) WTRALTGYA	148.0 (WB) TRALTGYAQ
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	0101	23	308.33 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	97.8 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	422.5 (WB) FWTRALTGY	465.0 (WB) LDRFWTRAL
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	0301 (17)	19	1562.32 TDLDRFWTR	523.4 TDLDRFWTR	397.1 (WB) TDLDRFWTR	5181.0 TDLDRFWTR
LRTDLDRFWTRALTG	0301 (17)	2	893.68 TDLDRFWTR	208.0 (WB) TDLDRFWTR	189.8 (WB) LRTDLDRFW	1164.0 TDLDRFWTR
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	0401	26	1230.41 LDRFWTRAL	510.2 RFWTRALTG	1045.4 LDRFWTRAL	824.0 LDRFWTRAL
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0401	28	75.81 (WB) WTRALTGYA	216.0 (WB) WTRALTGYA	1500.4 WTRALTGYA	1294.0 TRALTGYAQ
DLDRFWTRALTGYAQ	0401	0	254.70 (WB) WTRALTGYA	208.7 (WB) FWTRALTGY	1045.4 LDRFWTRAL	1022.0 LDRFWTRAL
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	0701	24	236.64 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	181.2 (WB) RFWTRALTG	129.0 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	490.0 (WB) LDRFWTRAL
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0701	28	56.19 (WB) WTRALTGYA	221.4 (WB) RFWTRALTG	1364.7 RFWTRALTG	1052.0 WTRALTGYA
LRTDLDRFWTRALTG	0701	4	396.16 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	169.1 (WB) RFWTRALTG	129.0 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	503.0 LDRFWTRAL
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0801	ND	45.80 (SB) WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0901	ND	19.99 (SB) WTRALTGYA	21.2 (SB) WTRALTGYA	1575.8 WTRALTGYA	176.0 (WB) WTRALTGYA
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	1001	ND	36.40 (SB) WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	1101	18	47.00 (SB) WTRALTGYA	73.9 (WB) WTRALTGYA	506.2 WTRALTGYA	793.0 WTRALTGYA
DLDRFWTRALTGYAQ	1101	7	118.48 (WB) WTRALTGYA	44.3 (SB) DRFWTRALT	506.2 WTRALTGYA	542.0 LDRFWTRAL
TDLDRFWTRALTGYA	1101	9	176.31 (WB) WTRALTGYA	47.9 (SB) DRFWTRALT	506.2 WTRALTGYA	264.0 (WB) LDRFWTRAL
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	1201	ND	30.49 (SB) WTRALTGYA	ND	24.7 (SB) DRFWTRALT	584.0 FWTRALTGY
TDLDRFWTRALTGYA	1201	ND	54.33 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	ND	24.7 (SB) DRFWTRALT	598.0 FWTRALTGY
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	1301	ND	896.73 LDRFWTRAL	ND	ND	ND
LDRFWTRALTGYAQL	1401	ND	518.20 WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	1501	28	160.58 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	81.6 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	260.8 (WB) LDRFWTRAL	292.0 (WB) LDRFWTRAL
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	1501	8	144.92 (WB) WTRALTGYA	292.7 (WB) WTRALTGYA	1164.6 ALTGYAQLI	1208.0 WTRALTGYA
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	1601	ND	88.90 (WB) WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND

HLA-DQ	Allele molecule	SYFPEITHI ^a	NetMHCIIpan 2.1	NetMHCII 2.2	IEDB	IEDB
Sequence	HLA-DQA1-DQB1	Score	Affinity nM	Affinity nM	arbpypthon (ARB) Affinity nM	SMM Affinity nM
RTDLDRFWTRALTGY	0101-0501 (DQ1(5))	ND	ND	3350.1 LDRFWTRAL	17544.9 LDRFWTRAL	2122.0 LDRFWTRAL
LDRFWTRALTGYAQL	0101-0501 (DQ1(5))	ND	ND	3624.5 LDRFWTRAL	6495.7 RALTGYAQL	1964.0 LDRFWTRAL
LDRFWTRALTGYAQL	0102-0602 (DQ1(6))	ND	ND	110.3 (WB) TRALTGYAQ	416.4 (WB) TRALTGYAQ	863.0 TRALTGYAQ
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0301-0302 (DQ3(8))	ND	ND	741.7 TRALTGYAQ	1508.9 RALTGYAQL	2599.0 TRALTGYAQ
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0401-0402 (DQ4)	ND	ND	2289.2 ALTGYAQLI	8839.3 TRALTGYAQ	5501.0 TRALTGYAQ
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0501-0201 (DQ2)	ND	ND	2258.9 ALTGYAQLI	3126.6 TRALTGYAQ	4043.0 RALTGYAQL
DRFWTRALTGYAQLI	0501-0301 (DQ3(7))	ND	ND	39.8 (SB) ALTGYAQLI	268.7 (WB) RALTGYAQL	150.0 (WB) TRALTGYAQ

^a SYFPEITHI scores ≥ 25 are considered positive
 Affinity nM: Strong binder (SB) = between 1 and 50 nM
 Weak binder (WB) = between 50 and 500 nM
 Core amino acids sequences are indicated along with Affinity nM values

Supplementary Table II. HLA-DR and DQ binding predictions Rv2034 p88-107 (FWTRALTGYAQLIDSEGDDT)

HLA-DR	Allele molecule	SYFPEITHI *	NetMHCIIpan 2.1	NetMHCII 2.2	IEDB	IEDB
Sequence	HLA-DRB1	Score	Affinity nM	Affinity nM	arbpypthon (ARB) Affinity nM	SMM Affinity nM
LTGYAQLIDSEGDDT	0101	18	312.24 (WB) YAQLIDSEG	461.4 (WB) YAQLIDSEG	231.3 (WB) YAQLIDSEG	253.0 (WB) YAQLIDSEG
TRALTGYAQLIDSEG	0101	9	181.26 (WB) ALTGYAQLI	92.6 (WB) ALTGYAQLI	24.6 (SB) ALTGYAQLI	160.0 (WB) ALTGYAQLI
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0101	10	19.73 (SB) WTRALTGYA	35.8 (SB) TRALTGYAQ	21.7 (SB) WTRALTGYA	199.0 (WB) TRALTGYAQ
TRALTGYAQLIDSEG	0301 (17)	18	8678.79 ALTGYAQLI	8615.4 LTGYAQLID	6774.6 LTGYAQLID	12827.0 ALTGYAQLI
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	0301 (17)	4	7642.93 ALTGYAQLI	7257.2 LTGYAQLID	6774.6 LTGYAQLID	12186.0 ALTGYAQLI
ALTGYAQLIDSEGDD	0301 (17)	1	10489.46 GYAQLIDSE	12849.8 LTGYAQLID	134.5 (WB) QLIDSEGDD	11880.0 ALTGYAQLI
LTGYAQLIDSEGDDT	0401	16	845.88 YAQLIDSEG	298.6 (WB) YAQLIDSEG	1206.2 YAQLIDSEG	910.0 YAQLIDSEG
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0401	6	235.93 (WB) WTRALTGYA	623.0 TRALTGYAQ	1500.4 WTRALTGYA	1752.0 TRALTGYAQ
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0701	16	149.85 (WB) WTRALTGYA	1010.6 ALTGYAQLI	1564.2 FWTRALTGY	1435.0 ALTGYAQLI
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0801	ND	114.75 (WB) WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0901	ND	49.71 (SB) WTRALTGYA	44.5 (SB) WTRALTGYA	1575.8 WTRALTGYA	508.0 WTRALTGYA
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1001	ND	90.27 (WB) WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND
LTGYAQLIDSEGDDT	1101	22	5316.28 YAQLIDSEG	4891.0 YAQLIDSEG	10335.7 YAQLIDSEG	2749.0 YAQLIDSEG
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1101	0	129.36 (WB) WTRALTGYA	270.2 (WB) TRALTGYAQ	506.2 WTRALTGYA	1727.0 TRALTGYAQ
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	1201	ND	130.28 (WB) WTRALTGYA	ND	76.9 (WB) GYAQLIDSE	5793.0 ALTGYAQLI
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1201	ND	73.92 (WB) WTRALTGYA	ND	226.0 (WB) FWTRALTGY	1436.0 FWTRALTGY
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1301	ND	1301.10 ALTGYAQLI	ND	ND	ND
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1401	ND	1119.26 WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND
TRALTGYAQLIDSEG	1501	26	1920.39 ALTGYAQLI	2419.7 ALTGYAQLI	1164.6 ALTGYAQLI	2869.0 ALTGYAQLI
LTGYAQLIDSEGDDT	1501	4	6484.58 YAQLIDSEG	7948.3 LTGYAQLID	499550.7 LIDSEGDDT	8760.0 LTGYAQLID
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1501	4	423.74 (WB) WTRALTGYA	404.7 (WB) WTRALTGYA	1164.6 ALTGYAQLI	1725.0 TRALTGYAQ
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	1601	ND	244.06 (WB) WTRALTGYA	ND	ND	ND

HLA-DQ	Allele molecule	SYFPEITHI *	NetMHCIIpan 2.1	NetMHCII 2.2	IEDB	IEDB
Sequence	HLA-DQA1-DQB1	Score	Affinity nM	Affinity nM	arbpypthon (ARB) Affinity nM	SMM Affinity nM
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	0101-0501 (DQ1(5))	ND	ND	932.5 ALTGYAQLI	6495.7 RALTGYAQL	3032.0 LTGYAQLID
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0102-0602 (DQ1(6))	ND	ND	200.7 (WB) TRALTGYAQ	416.4 (WB) TRALTGYAQ	875.0 TRALTGYAQ
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	0102-0602 (DQ1(6))	ND	ND	278.2 (WB) TGYAQLIDS	416.4 (WB) TRALTGYAQ	982.0 TGYAQLIDS
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	0301-0302 (DQ3(8))	ND	ND	791.3 TRALTGYAQ	1508.9 RALTGYAQL	2218.0 ALTGYAQLI
RALTGYAQLIDSEGD	0301-0302 (DQ3(8))	ND	ND	918.5 GYAQLIDSE	1508.9 RALTGYAQL	2038.0 GYAQLIDSE
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	0401-0402 (DQ4)	ND	ND	720.1 LTGYAQLID	8839.3 TRALTGYAQ	1907.0 LTGYAQLID
TRALTGYAQLIDSEG	0401-0402 (DQ4)	ND	ND	839.6 GYAQLIDSE	6060.8 YAQLIDSEG	1823.0 GYAQLIDSE
LTGYAQLIDSEGDDT	0501-0201 (DQ2)	ND	ND	576.6 GYAQLIDSE	2693.9 GYAQLIDSE	498.0 (WB) GYAQLIDSE
WTRALTGYAQLIDSE	0501-0201 (DQ2)	ND	ND	383.2 (WB) GYAQLIDSE	2693.9 GYAQLIDSE	1259.0 RALTGYAQL
FWTRALTGYAQLIDS	0501-0301 (DQ3(7))	ND	ND	31.6 (SB) TGYAQLIDS	268.7 (WB) RALTGYAQL	116.0 (WB) ALTGYAQLI

*SYFPEITHI scores ≥ 25 are considered positive
 Affinity nM: Strong binder (SB) = between 1 and 50 nM
 Weak binder (WB) = between 50 and 500 nM
 Core amino acids sequences are indicated along with Affinity nM values

Supplementary Table III. HLA-DR and DQ binding predictions Rv2034 p11-30 (WQALADGTRRAIVERLAHGP)

HLA-DR	Allele molecule	SYFPEITHI *	NetMHCIIpan 2.1	NetMHCII 2.2	IEDB	IEDB
Sequence	HLA-DRB1	Score	Affinity nM	Affinity nM	arbpypthon (ARB) Affinity nM	SMM Affinity nM
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0101	17	936.57 WQALADGTR	1338.2 WQALADGTR	328.2 (WB) WQALADGTR	1280.0 WQALADGTR
ADGTRRAIVERLAHG	0101	10	548.27 TRRAIVERL	217.2 (WB) TRRAIVERL	162.3 (WB) TRRAIVERL	966.0 TRRAIVERL
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	0101	17	649.35 TRRAIVERL	358.4 (WB) TRRAIVERL	162.3 (WB) TRRAIVERL	704.0 RRAIVERLA
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0301 (17)	17	382.05 (WB) ALADGTRRA	3657.0 ALADGTRRA	778.5 WQALADGTR	1964.0 ALADGTRRA
LADGTRRAIVERLAH	0301 (17)	2	2573.34 TRRAIVERL	2246.2 TRRAIVERL	7041.1 RRAIVERLA	3947.0 TRRAIVERL
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0401	20	2619.02 ALADGTRRA	1776.5 ALADGTRRA	6144.3 ALADGTRRA	1671.0 ALADGTRRA
QALADGTRRAIVERL	0401	12	3992.11 ALADGTRRA	1705.9 ALADGTRRA	1899.1 TRRAIVERL	2629.0 LADGTRRAI
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0701	16	2050.02 LADGTRRAI	7737.1 LADGTRRAI	7861.3 LADGTRRAI	2323.0 ADGTRRAIV
LADGTRRAIVERLAH	0701	0	1160.30 TRRAIVERL	2146.9 TRRAIVERL	416.1 (WB) TRRAIVERL	1726.0 TRRAIVERL
QALADGTRRAIVERL	0701	16	1391.66 TRRAIVERL	1753.3 TRRAIVERL	416.1 (WB) TRRAIVERL	1222.0 LADGTRRAI
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	0801	ND	102.49 (WB) RAIVERLAH	ND	ND	ND
LADGTRRAIVERLAH	0901	ND	942.60 TRRAIVERL	1257.0 RRAIVERLA	7453.7 TRRAIVERL	796.0 RRAIVERLA
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0901	ND	1869.34 WQALADGTR	1622.3 LADGTRRAI	4085.1 WQALADGTR	2363.0 LADGTRRAI
ADGTRRAIVERLAHG	1001	ND	1264.06 TRRAIVERL	ND	ND	ND
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	1101	16	499.56 (WB) RAIVERLAH	90.7 (WB) RAIVERLAH	437.9 (WB) TRRAIVERL	1172.0 RAIVERLAH
QALADGTRRAIVERL	1101	9	1500.09 LADGTRRAI	589.6 LADGTRRAI	437.9 (WB) TRRAIVERL	981.0 LADGTRRAI
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	1201	ND	209.21 (WB) RAIVERLAH	ND	233.7 (WB) AIVERLAHG	5680.0 AIVERLAHG
ALADGTRRAIVERLA	1201	ND	450.26 (WB) TRRAIVERL	ND	236.4 (WB) RRAIVERLA	38230.0 ALADGTRRA
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	1301	ND	1347.99 TRRAIVERL	ND	ND	ND
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	1401	ND	1333.73 RAIVERLAH	ND	ND	ND
WQALADGTRRAIVER	1501	14	3684.32 ALADGTRRA	7965.6 ADGTRRAIV	39071.2 LADGTRRAI	8956.0 ALADGTRRA
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	1501	4	2064.34 TRRAIVERL	3040.1 AIVERLAHG	420.3 (WB) IVERLAHGP	2426.0 RRAIVERLA
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	1601	ND	1556.01 RRAIVERLA	ND	ND	ND

HLA-DQ	Allele molecule	SYFPEITHI ^a	NetMHCIIpan 2.1	NetMHCII 2.2	IEDB	IEDB
Sequence	HLA-DQA1-DQB1	Score	Affinity nM	Affinity nM	arbpython (ARB) Affinity nM	SMM Affinity nM
ADGTRRAIVERLAHG	0101-0501 (DQ1(5))	ND	ND	20442.7 TRRAIVERL	39420.9 TRRAIVERL	19682.0 TRRAIVERL
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0101-0501 (DQ1(5))	ND	ND	30725.4 ADGTRRAIV	30620.6 LADGTRRAI	25918.0 WQALADGTR
ADGTRRAIVERLAHG	0102-0602 (DQ1(6))	ND	ND	342.7 (WB) TRRAIVERL	2666.1 TRRAIVERL	1450.0 RRAIVERLA
WQALADGTRRAIVER	0102-0602 (DQ1(6))	ND	ND	5621.9 ADGTRRAIV	1049.0 LADGTRRAI	3782.0 ADGTRRAIV
LADGTRRAIVERLAH	0301-0302 (DQ3(8))	ND	ND	1204.6 DGTRRAIVE	9616.6 RAIVERLAH	1551.0 TRRAIVERL
QALADGTRRAIVERL	0401-0402 (DQ4)	ND	ND	1364.5 DGTRRAIVE	10443.7 TRRAIVERL	2530.0 GTRRAIVER
LADGTRRAIVERLAH	0401-0402 (DQ4)	ND	ND	1758.0 DGTRRAIVE	10443.7 TRRAIVERL	2523.0 GTRRAIVER
DGTRRAIVERLAHGP	0501-0201 (DQ2)	ND	ND	1730.8 TRRAIVERL	5997.0 TRRAIVERL	3385.0 TRRAIVERL
QALADGTRRAIVERL	0501-0201 (DQ2)	ND	ND	484.9 (WB) TRRAIVERL	5997.0 TRRAIVERL	4564.0 GTRRAIVER
ALADGTRRAIVERLA	0501-0301 (DQ3(7))	ND	ND	143.7 (WB) TRRAIVERL	14.6 (SB) ADGTRRAIV	255.0 (WB) ADGTRRAIV
QALADGTRRAIVERL	0501-0301 (DQ3(7))	ND	ND	154.4 (WB) ADGTRRAIV	14.6 (SB) ADGTRRAIV	237.0 (WB) ADGTRRAIV

^aSYFPEITHI scores ≥ 25 are considered positive
Affinity nM: Strong binder (SB) = between 1 and 50 nM
Weak binder (WB) = between 50 and 500 nM
Core amino acids sequences are indicated along with Affinity nM values

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CHAPTER 7

Summary and Discussion

Summary and Discussion

Currently, only one TB vaccine is available: *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG). This vaccine induces highly variable protection against pulmonary TB, the most common and contagious form of TB. There is an urgent need for an effective TB vaccine which is safe also in the immunocompromised host.

Multiple subunit vaccines are currently under study and consist mostly of antigens that are expressed by actively replicating *Mtb*. However, *Mtb* has the ability to enter into a less active, latent or dormant state. *Mtb* uses this adaptation strategy to survive harsh and stressful conditions inside human cells. *Mtb* adapts to these conditions by changing its gene expression pattern. A gene cluster specifically upregulated in response to hypoxia is known as the dormancy regulon encoded (DosR) gene cluster. A second set of proteins is involved in the reactivation of dormant bacteria, and is known as resuscitation promoting factors (Rpf).

DosR regulon encoded proteins and Rpf proteins are associated with certain phases of the *Mtb* infection cycle, and have therefore been coined *Mtb* infection-phase related antigens. It remains unclear how many other proteins are regulated during *Mtb* infection. These phase related proteins could represent antigens which might represent efficient subunit vaccine candidates for prophylactic or therapeutic vaccines during essential steps of the infection cycle. To qualify as an efficient vaccine candidate, an antigen should meet several prerequisites:

- (i) The antigen should be immunogenic, that is, the protein should be recognized by antigen-specific T cells from mycobacteria exposed individuals.
- (ii) The antigen should be expressed during *in vivo* infection in infected tissue, such that vaccine-induced T cells are able to recognize *Mtb* infected cells.
- (iii) The antigen should induce TB protection, that is: the protein should generate an immune response that is able to limit the growth of *Mtb* or eliminate the bacteria, with limited tissue damage.
- (iv) The protein sequence should be conserved among multiple *Mtb* strains, such that vaccines based on these antigens can be applied globally against multiple *Mtb* strains.

The work in this thesis has focused on *Mtb* infection-phase related antigens as possible TB subunit vaccine candidates, and will be discussed here with a particular focus on these four requirements.

Immunogenic *Mtb* infection-phase related antigens as new TB vaccine candidates

Understanding *Mtb* specific T-cell responses in clinically relevant human populations is an important step in identifying essential mechanisms of protective immunity against TB, which in turn will facilitate the design of better TB vaccines. We have studied the ability of T cells to recognize three different classes of new candidate *Mtb* antigens, described in this thesis, as new antigen candidates for improved TB vaccines. Rpf and DosR regulon encoded antigens

were identified previously by our group as *Mtb* infection-phase related antigens, whereas *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* (IVE-TB) antigens are described here for the first time.

Vaccine induced, Rpf-specific T cells might be useful in enhancing immune surveillance of reactivating and resuscitating *Mtb* and thereby help to control *Mtb* reactivation. Of the five Rpf homologous proteins encoded by *Mtb* (Rv0867c, Rv1009, Rv1884c, Rv2389c, Rv2450c: RpfA-E) two, Rv0867c and Rv2389c, were screened for their immunogenicity. Both Rpf antigens were immunogenic (**chapter 2**), based on antigen-specific T-cell cytokine production, the presence of immunogenic epitopes and highly specific T-cell frequencies in latent infected individuals. Therefore, these proteins fulfill at least one of the requirements for a potential *Mtb* vaccine candidate, and this was confirmed by other groups studying mycobacteria exposed individuals [1-3]. The immunogenicity of Rpf antigens has also been analyzed in C57BL/6 and BALB/c mice [4]. Rv0867c and Rv2389c did not show any responses either induced by mycobacterial infection (Rv0867c) or DNA vaccination (Rv2389c). This was surprising in view of their immunogenicity in humans, and is most likely by the lack of proper MHC molecules able to present Rv0867c or Rv2389c immunogenic epitopes. In any event, this demonstrates the difficulty of translating results across species. Using humanized HLA-transgenic mice for such analyses could limit these species differences (**chapter 5**) [5].

Mtb DosR regulon encoded antigens Rv1733c, Rv2029c and Rv2031c (HspX) were shown to be immunogenic as measured by proliferation of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells from purified protein derivative positive (PPD⁺) donors and the presence of cytokine producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells in long-term latently infected individuals (ltLTBI) (**chapter 3**), corresponding to previous work [2;6;7]. These ltLTBI donors had been exposed to *Mtb* decades ago yet did not develop any clinical signs of TB despite never having received prophylactic treatment. Thus, they represent a group of “naturally protected” individuals. Multiple immunogenic regions were detected for both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells. A recent study incorporated HLA-DR3 restricted epitopes of Rv1733c (Rv1733₆₃₋₇₇), Rv2031c (Rv2031c₃₁₋₅₀) and Ag85B (Ag85B₅₆₋₄₆) in a poly-epitope vaccine which induced an HLA-DR3-specific reduction of *Mtb* CFU in HLA-DR3 transgenic mice [5], indicating that these antigens are of particular interest as vaccine candidates.

Recognition of the dormancy antigen HspX by mycobacteria exposed individuals is inconsistent (ranging from being well recognized e.g. [8;9] to limited recognition e.g. [6;7;10]) but despite these contrasting findings HspX has been analyzed in multiple vaccination studies [5;11-15], showing protective efficacy against *Mtb*. Importantly, BCG vaccination does not induce antigen-specific T cells against *Mtb* DosR regulon encoded antigens, including HspX [9;16] whereas overexpression of HspX in BCG enhances *Mtb* protection, indicating that HspX may play a role in TB control depending on the precise vaccine background [11]. Interestingly, in one particular study recombinant HspX vaccination did not provide TB protection, whereas the native form of HspX did [13]. It was suggested that the native form chaperones an immunogenic and protective antigen or peptide(s) [13]. Thus, despite the variable immunogenicity results, HspX remains an interesting vaccine candidate.

In **chapter 4** we describe a novel set of antigens, namely *in vivo* expressed *Mtb* antigens (IVE-TB). These were identified from *Mtb* gene expression profiles detected in the lungs of *Mtb* infected mouse strains across a spectrum of TB susceptibility. Recombinant proteins were produced from a selection of these genes and their immunogenicity was analyzed using PBMC from tuberculin skin test positive (TST⁺) donors. The IVE-TB antigens were specifically recognized by cells from TST⁺ ESAT-6/CFP-10 (E/C⁺) individuals. Furthermore, the IVE-TB protein sequences were conserved within *Mtb* strains. The immunogenicity of Rv0079, Rv1284 and Rv1956 has been analyzed previously. Rv0079 was recognized by a minority of mycobacteria exposed individuals [3;6;7], whereas Rv1284 and Rv1956 were strongly recognized in *Mycobacterium bovis* exposed cattle [17]. Indeed, we observed limited recognition of Rv0079 and strong recognition of Rv1284 and Rv1956 (**chapter 4**). Nevertheless Rv1284 could not induce protection against *Mtb* challenge in C57BL/6 mice, which was attributed to the lack of presentation of H-2^b restricted T-cell epitopes [18]. Importantly, seven of the sixteen analyzed IVE-TB antigens were previously identified in studies analyzing the gene expression profile of *Mtb* grown under *in vitro* conditions that are thought to mimic those encountered by *Mtb* *in vivo*, including Rv0079, Rv1284 and Rv1956 [19-21]. This suggests that these conditions are also relevant during *in vivo* infection. Finally, immunization of HLA-DR transgenic mice with IVE-TB antigen Rv2034 resulted in a decrease of CFU after *Mtb* challenge. Thus, Rv2034 is able to induce a protective response against *Mtb* (**chapter 5**). Finally, (native) Rv2034 contains an HLA-DR restricted epitope that could be recognized by an Rv2034-specific CD4⁺ T-cell clone as determined in **chapter 6**. Overall, the analyzed IVE-TB antigens are immunogenic, conserved, expressed *in vivo* and -at least for Rv2034- able to induce responses that reduce *Mtb* burden *in vivo*.

IVE-TB antigens: revealing potential *Mtb* pathways as targets for intervention

Analyzing *Mtb* gene expression patterns during *in vivo* infection can provide insight into microbial stress response pathways during infection, which may facilitate the selection of interesting vaccine candidate antigens. It is of obvious importance to select *Mtb* vaccine candidates that are expressed *in vivo* during infection. These antigens should include proteins that are not only expressed -and often secreted- during the early active replication phase (such as the current vaccine proteins ESAT-6 and Ag85B), but also proteins that are strongly expressed at later time points during infection. Studies reported the rather limited recognition of antigens from the Ag85 complex in mycobacteria exposed individuals, both in active TB patients and LTBI [1;3;22]. This unexpectedly low recognition may be explained by a low expression level of the gene encoding Ag85B (*fibronectin-binding protein B* (*fbpB*)) *in vivo* in the chronic phase of infection, as shown by Bold *et al.* [23], an effect they interpreted as an immune evasion mechanism. A related proposed mechanism is ‘immunological decoy’, implying that a non-essential (secreted) protein is highly produced initially (in the early phase of infection) and thus generates a pool of antigen-specific T cells, but is subsequently down regulated in the prolonged phase of infection, thus “misdirecting”

the immune system by hampering strong immunity against late infection-phase associated proteins [24]. This hypothesis argues against the use of only early secreted antigens as vaccine candidates since some of these may be down-regulated later in time. Thus (persistently) *in vivo* highly expressed antigens might have interesting potential as vaccine candidates.

In **chapter 4** a group of 68 genes was identified to be highly expressed *in vivo*, independent of genetic differences in host background of the mouse strains studied. Within the group of highly expressed *Mtb* genes, a cluster of three genes, *Rv2380c*, *Rv2381c* and *Rv2382c* was identified which encode for proteins MbtE, MbtD and MbtC. These proteins are involved in the synthesis of mycobactins, which are lipophilic siderophores. Mycobactins, together with carboxymycobactins, are required for iron acquisition from the host environment by hijacking iron from host iron-binding proteins [25], which supports the view that *Mtb* requires iron from the host *in vivo* for survival. Importantly, upon APC activation, the expression of the natural resistance associated macrophage protein (NRAMP1) metal transporter protein's expression is enhanced. This host protein is involved in the reduction of intraphagosomal iron levels [26]. Polymorphisms of the *NRAMP/solute carrier 11A1* (*SLC11A1*) gene are associated with TB susceptibility [26;27], supporting iron-competition between host and pathogen during *Mtb* infection. ESX-3, a secretion system suggested to be essential for survival, is involved in transport of iron-loaded mycobactins [28;29]. Interestingly, this cluster expresses two Esx-like molecules, EsxG and EsxH (*Rv0287* and *Rv0288*) which were both present in our set of highly expressed genes (**chapter 4**). Thus *Mtb* iron acquisition seems to be important during *in vivo* infection.

Not surprisingly, multiple genes were detected in our highly expressed set of genes that are linked to the virulence associated ESX-1 secretion system (*Rv3615c* (EspC), *Rv3616c* (EspA), *Rv3864* (EspE), *Rv3865* (EspF) and *Rv3875* (ESAT-6/EsxA)).

Lastly, the gene coding for isocitrate lyase (*Rv0467*), which initiates the first step in the glyoxylate shunt and is required for *in vivo* survival, was also highly expressed during infection in the lung [30-32]. Also other genes were detected in this set that supposedly play a role in *Mtb* cell wall lipid assembly, lipid degradation and gluconeogenesis (e.g. FadD28 (DIM[33]), FadE5 (β -oxidation (cholesterol[34])) and FadB2 (β -oxidation [35])). Thus, these lipid associated metabolic pathways are likely to be important during *in vivo* infection.

Ex vivo and *in vivo* (whole genome) *Mtb* microarrays have been performed to identify genes that are expressed during infection as reviewed by Ward *et al.* [36] and Waddell *et al.* [37]. Limited overlap was observed between *Mtb* genes expressed during *ex vivo* and *in vivo* conditions, although the same categories of genes could be identified [36]. Indeed the expression of iron scavenger related genes, including genes from the above mentioned *mbt* gene cluster, was observed in *Mtb* infected murine and human host cells [38-42] and in *in vivo* infection [43], compatible with low levels of iron within the host cell [44]. Also the expression of genes associated with lipid metabolism, including isocitrate lyase were upregulated both *ex vivo* [37;39-42] and *in vivo* [37;43], further verifying our results. Overall, several interesting *Mtb* metabolic pathways have been identified using these gene

discovery approaches. These findings might further promote the identification of novel vaccine candidates, but also help to understand the behavior of *Mtb* *in vivo*.

Correlation of IVE-TB antigens and expression with TB disease phenotypes

In addition to the highly expressed genes, a number of different TB disease phenotype related *Mtb* gene expression groups were generated in **chapter 4**. Here, specific *Mtb* gene expression was correlated to particular TB disease key phenotypes such as necrosis and granuloma formation, based on comparisons made between C3H, B6, C3H.B6-*sst1* and B6.C3H-*sst1* mouse models. Unfortunately, limited data is available on the role of *Mtb* in the development of such phenotypes. The environmental host conditions associated with these phenotypes might influence the behavior and adaptation of bacteria and alter the expression of these genes, but it is also possible that *Mtb* shifts its genetic -and subsequently protein- expression to induce or enhance these host TB phenotypes. *M. marinum* mutagenesis studies revealed a role for (RD-1 specific) *Mtb* genes in the development and containment of granulomas [45-48]. However, RD-1 specific proteins were highly expressed in all mouse strains in our system as discussed in the previous section, and therefore were not specifically associated with a granuloma phenotype.

Furthermore, *M. marinum* specific granuloma activated genes (GAPs), were described to be expressed within granulomas of infected frogs [49]. Unfortunately, no overlap between our detected granuloma associated genes and the GAPs was observed, which might be related to differences between animal models and mycobacterial species used. Nevertheless our approach described in **chapter 4** attempted to minimize these TB pathology differences by rigorously selecting for the presence of specific pathological phenotypes, known to be relevant in human TB [50;51]. Finally, Rachman *et al.* analyzed *Mtb* gene expression in different sites of the lung from TB patients. Here, the necrosis associated Rv1607 (probable ionic transporter integral membrane protein, *chaA*) gene and granuloma associated Rv2465c (Ribose-5-phosphate isomerase, *rpi*) gene were upregulated in peri-cavity lesions [52], supporting the expression of these genes at the site of infection. Overall, limited data is available concerning *Mtb* gene-specific influences on TB disease phenotypes. The above data thus demonstrate that *Mtb* expresses genes specifically associated with pulmonary granulomatous structures.

HLA class I and class II restriction of new *Mtb* T-cell epitopes

Several recent studies have analyzed the presence of T-cell epitopes in *Mtb* antigens using *in silico* and *in vitro* peptide binding to HLA class I and II e.g. [53-56], which represent approaches that increasing the chance of detecting immunogenic *Mtb* antigens. An overview of immunogenic epitopes is available at the Immune Epitope DataBase (IEDB <http://iedb.org>) [57]. An *Mtb* genome-wide *in silico*, *ex vivo* and *in vitro* epitope analysis [54] described nine antigens that were also (specifically) expressed *in vivo* in our work as described in **chapter 4**. Two antigens (Rv0291 and Rv1243) were described as novel T-cell antigens. In addition, three other antigens were identified

from previous epitope screens [55;56] (Table 1). Thus these IVE-TB antigens contain epitopes with a high HLA binding affinity and are immunogenic, further underpinning their potential as vaccine candidates.

Table 1. Predicted HLA class I and class II epitopes overlapping with IVE-TB antigens

gene	protein	category selection chapter 4	HLA class	reference
Rv3615c	ESX-1 secretion-associated protein EspC	highly expressed	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv0288	EsxH	highly expressed	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv0287	EsxG	highly expressed	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv3875	ESAT-6	highly expressed	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv0291	Probable membrane-anchored mycosin MycP3	Inflammation	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv3015c	Conserved hypothetical protein	Relapse	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv3019c	EsxR	Resistance	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv3020c	EsxS (PE28)	Resistance	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv1243c	PE_PGRS23	resistance/low inflammation	II	Lindestam Arlehamn <i>et al.</i>
Rv2460c	ClpP2	highly expressed	II	Tang <i>et al.</i>
Rv0440	GroEL2	highly expressed	II	Tang <i>et al.</i>
Rv1482c	Conserved hypothetical protein	resistance/inflammation	I	Hammond <i>et al.</i>

Immune recognition of *Mtb* infection-phase related antigens by immune cells from mycobacteria exposed individuals

Both Rpf, DosR and IVE-TB antigens were recognized by CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells from ltLTBI donors (**Chapter 2, 3 and 4**). CD4⁺ T cells are known to be important in control of *Mtb* infection [58]. Less is known about the role of CD8⁺ T cells in *Mtb* infection but they likely play an important role in TB protection, particularly during latency [59-61]. Our work showed that CD8⁺ T cells are present in high frequencies in ltLTBI, suggesting that DosR, Rpf and IVE-TB antigens are presented either via (i) cross presentation; (ii) translocation to the cytoplasm [62]; or (iii) alternative MHC class I presentation pathways [63]. Furthermore, (iv) apoptosis of *Mtb* loaded cells can further enhance MHC-I antigen presentation and subsequent activation of CD8⁺ T cells [64;65].

Using a short stimulation protocol (**chapter 2, 3 and 4**) Rpf, DosR-regulon and IVE-TB antigen-specific immune responses could be detected in ltLTBI donors. This approach readily detected effector and effector memory T cells (Teff and Tem, respectively) whereas longer stimulation periods are typically required to detect full activation of central memory T cells (Tcm). [66] Indeed IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells were the most prominent DosR and Rpf specific T cells identified in the PBMC of ltLTBI population. Interestingly, this population showed mainly a Tem, (CCR7⁻/CD45RA⁺) and Teff (CCR7⁺/CD45RA⁺) CD8⁺ T-cell phenotype, which are considered to be important to early-phase protection by inducing effector functions at the site of infection [67;68]. Two previous studies identified antigen-specific CD4⁺ Tem in elderly with a

history of TB and also questioned why such effector cells remained present, even after effective treatment [69;70]. It was suggested that either endured longevity of the cells [69] or continued antigen exposure [70] due to insufficient clearance of the infection after treatment [69] accounted for their presence. Interestingly, a subset of untreated spontaneous ‘healed’ TB patients did not show IFN- γ specific T cells *ex vivo*, but had Tcm, suggesting clearance of the bacteria in these particular donors [70]. It has been proposed that Tem cells can convert to Tcm in the absence of antigen [71;72]. However, it is as yet not possible to detect viable *Mtb* bacilli in LTBI, such that true *Mtb* persistence cannot be verified in LTBI.

Although such effector and/or effector memory CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were present in healthy *Mtb* exposed individuals (our work and [54;69;70;73;74]), they cannot be associated firmly to protection as multiple studies have shown Teff and Tem (CD8⁺ [73]; CD4⁺ [74]) in active TB patients as well. In addition, Tcm could be identified in LTBI (CD4 [2;10;54;74], CD8[2;10], TB patients (CD4[2;10], CD8[2;10]) and cured TB patients (CD4⁺ [70;74], indicating that Tcm is not always associated with protection. The plasticity of particularly CD8⁺ memory T-cell subset might account for this diverse spread of memory subsets among mycobacteria exposed individuals. CD8⁺ memory T cells are suggested not to follow a linear differentiation model, in contrast to CD4⁺ T cells [75;76]. Rather, activated CD8⁺ T cells might directly develop into Tem or Tcm which subsequently develop into Teff. In addition, CD8⁺ Tem seem to be able to differentiate into Tcm upon antigen clearance [75;77]. Interestingly, CD8⁺ Teff, as defined by CCR7⁻/CD45⁺, were not as terminally differentiated as previously thought as they may become Tem upon TCR activation and finally return to Teff, or, as suggested by the authors, become transitional resting cells, based on CD45RA re-expression during continued lack of antigen [78]. The different CD8⁺ memory subsets observed in LTBI as shown by the studies described in the latter may reflect these alternative explanations. Of note, the memory subsets of IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ CD8⁺ T cells that were analyzed in this thesis were detected using a short stimulation protocol. It is possible that this might have biased towards the detection of effector cells (and this also accounts for other studies mentioned in the latter).

Taking the results of the previous studies into account ltLTBI individuals analyzed in **chapter 2 and 3** probably remained exposed to Rpf and DosR regulon encoded antigens either via *Mtb*, and thus *Mtb* infection was not fully cleared, or via cross-reactive immunity by, for example, exposure to (non-tuberculous) environmental mycobacteria (NTM).

Limited antigen-specific T-cell responses (by IFN- γ) were observed in TB patients when compared to TST⁺ individuals (**chapter 4**), a phenomenon that has been described in other studies as well [10;79;80]. Sequestration (the preferential homing of T cells to the site of infection) [81] can result in a decrease in T cells in the periphery, thus leading to decreased antigen recognition by PBMC [82;83]. These peripheral blood responses normalize after successful treatment [81]. However, a continued lack of full responses after TB treatment can persist as well [80]. This may suggest that besides sequestration other factors might be involved in *Mtb* antigen

low responsiveness in TB patients [84;85]. Regulatory T cells (Tregs) are known to suppress T cell and APC activation, limiting the pro-inflammatory immune response [86;87]. In addition, anti-inflammatory macrophages might further enhance non-responsiveness by inducing Tregs which further suppress pro-inflammatory responses via *e.g.* TGF- β [88]. Indeed, PPD non-responding TB patients showed no or low IFN- γ production or T-cell proliferation, but expressed the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 [89] which is known to dampen macrophage and T-cell activation [90]. Indeed, the absence of IL-10 increased protection against *Mtb* infection via enhanced Th1 immunity [91]. Other *Mtb* immune suppression mechanisms are described as well, including (i) specific inhibition and detoxification of ROS production [92;93], inhibition of phagosome maturation [93-95], avoiding of apoptosis and inhibition of autophagy [93]. The influence of additional, unknown host genetic factors [96-98] likely can also limit the development of a robust Th1 immune response and lastly, differential expression of *Mtb* antigens definitely influences the activation of antigen-specific T cells. Thus, many factors can be involved in the decreased antigen recognition observed in TB patients.

Polyfunctional T cells and anti-mycobacterial immunity

The protective efficacy of IVE-TB antigen Rv2034 was described in **chapter 5**. Immunization with Rv2034/CpG resulted in a decrease of CFU after challenge with live *Mtb* when compared to non-immunized mice. Interestingly, immunization with Rv2034/CpG did not induce polyfunctional CD4⁺ T cells producing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2, but rather showed enhanced levels of CD4⁺ T cells producing IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺ and IFN- γ ⁺. Although triple positive CD4⁺ T cells were not strongly induced, the vaccine nevertheless induced protection against *Mtb*. Therefore, triple positive (IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺) CD4⁺ T cells do not seem to be strictly required for *Mtb* protection following vaccination. In addition, low frequencies of IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ CD4⁺ and triple positive CD8⁺ T cells were identified within the ltLTBI donors who did not develop TB (**chapter 2, 3 and 4**). Together these studies imply a minor role of triple cytokine producing T cells in protection against *Mtb* during infection. Importantly, control SEB stimulation revealed substantial populations of CD154⁺/CD4⁺ T cells producing IFN- γ , TNF- α and IL-2, demonstrating that these ltLTBI donors are able to produce triple positive T cells.

Multiple studies have analyzed the presence of IFN- γ ⁺/TNF- α ⁺/IL-2⁺ triple positive CD4⁺ and/or CD8⁺ T cells upon *Mtb* infection [99-102] and TB vaccination [103-109]. Contradictory results regarding the presence of these cells and their association to protection were reported. Technical variability in cytokine detection between the studies described may have been responsible in part for these contrasting data as both incubation period during antigen stimulation and cytokine accumulation using Golgi transport inhibitors can influence the distribution of *Mtb* specific polyfunctional T cells [110]. Furthermore, the timing of the assay may be relevant since T cells can change their cytokine expression pattern over time such that subsets based on cytokine secretion is not static but dynamic and plastic [111;112]. Also, as for memory subsets above, the

antigen/bacterial load could play a role in the variation of T-cell function and phenotype [100;113]. *Mtb* specific polyfunctional T cells were actually suggested to be correlates of antigen load rather than correlates of protection [114;115]. Hence, multiple factors may affect the development of polyfunctional T cells, complicating the interpretation of their exact role in TB protection.

TB vaccine candidates selection based on conservation between different mycobacterial strains

IVE-TB Rv2034 is conserved among multiple *Mtb* complex strains. It is important to vaccinate against conserved antigens in order to prevent *Mtb* escape from the immune system due to antigen variation (e.g. epitope mutation) as has been suggested for the PE and PPE families of *Mtb* proteins [116;117]. On the other hand, previously identified human T-cell epitopes of *Mtb* were found to be particularly strongly conserved as shown by Comas *et al.* [118]. This finding was interpreted to indicate that *Mtb* may benefit from host T-cell immunity as the bacterium seems to avoid escaping host immune pressure through antigenic variation. An underlying mechanism may well be that T-cell immunity eventually induces pathology [119], such as Th1 induced granulomatous necrosis, which can ultimately lead to further transmission and dissemination of infection [120]. This indicates that the balance between pathogen and host in *Mtb* infection is delicate and subtle.

Immunity directed against broadly conserved antigens might already be present in unvaccinated, *Mtb*-unexposed individuals, induced by non-mycobacterial or (non-tuberculous) environmental mycobacteria (NTM) species encoding these conserved antigens. DosR regulon specific responses were observed in NTM exposed individuals who had no history of TB exposure [121] and exposure to NTM can induce *Mtb* cross-protection [122-124] and enhance BCG protection [123]. However, NTM induced immunity might also limit the protective effect of subsequent TB vaccination [124]. Notably, NTM-induced immunity could block BCG multiplication, thus preventing the development of efficient BCG induced immunity [125]. Thus pre-existing memory induced by conserved antigens may act on live mycobacterial TB vaccines and as such influence the protective value of this vaccine.

Future perspective

Different *Mtb* infection-phase related antigens were analyzed as possible TB subunit vaccine antigens, taking into account four criteria as specified in section 1. Both Rpf and *Mtb* DosR regulon encoded antigens were recognized by mycobacteria exposed individuals and thus were immunogenic (first criterion). The antigens from both sets included immunogenic regions which can be used in future vaccines studies to determine their protective value against TB. A third set of antigens, identified and described in this thesis (IVE-TB antigens), expressed in the lungs of *Mtb* infected mice, was shown to be immunogenic as these were recognized by CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells from *Mtb* exposed individuals, including long-term LTBI. IVE-TB protein Rv2034 fulfilled all four requirements for an efficient vaccine candidate. To further extend these results the Rv2034 protein

could be studied in the highly TB susceptible C3H mouse strain as a more relevant model for TB protection and disease than classically used C57BL/6, which is relatively TB resistant. Also future optimizing studies are required to define optimal adjuvant delivery strategy.

Based on our work and that of others, TB vaccine candidates should include multiple *Mtb* infection-phase related antigen sets, including active-infection- as well as latency-and *in vivo* expressed antigens. Although complete clearance of *Mtb* may be a challenging goal, it should be possible to prevent development of active TB by maintaining optimal immune pressure, which could be boosted by vaccines aiming to prevent reactivation of *Mtb* and thus help containing infection. To actually eradicate *Mtb* infection, other approaches may have to be used in combination with vaccine approaches. This might include the use of vaccination and host modulatory drugs followed by antibiotic treatment. Combining a therapeutic vaccine and antibiotic treatment already showed potential [126]. Hopefully, the future will show whether these multi-stage vaccines and cocktail treatments will lead to reduction in TB cases.

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ADDENDUM

Nederlandse samenvatting
Curriculum Vitae
List of publications

Nederlandse samenvatting

Algemene inleiding

Tuberculose (TB) wordt veroorzaakt door de bacterie *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*). Men schat dat er in 2011 8.7 miljoen nieuwe TB gevallen bij zijn gekomen en dat het de levens van 1.4 miljoen mensen heeft gekost. Hiermee blijft TB de op één na grootste veroorzaker van sterfgevallen door infectieziekten, waarbij *human immunodeficiency virus* (HIV) de lijst aanvoert.

Na infectie nestelt de tuberkel bacterie zich in de long en kan zich hier jarenlang schuilhouden. Dit leidt tot een latente infectie, zonder zichtbare klinische kenmerken. Echter 3-10% van de *Mtb* geïnfecteerde mensen zal in de loop der tijd TB ontwikkelen, met nieuwe *Mtb* besmettingen als gevolg.

De bestrijding van TB wordt bemoeilijkt door; (i) de ontwikkeling van antibiotica resistentie, (ii) co-infectie van TB en HIV, (iii) beperkte methodes om latente en vroeg klinische *Mtb* infectie op te sporen en (iii) de afwezigheid van een effectief TB vaccin. Op dit moment is er slechts één TB vaccin beschikbaar; *Mycobacterium bovis* Bacille Calmette-Guérin (BCG). Dit vaccin induceert echter zeer variabele, en incomplete bescherming tegen de meest voorkomende en besmettelijke vorm, open long TB. Daarbij is het vaccin een verzwakt, maar levende bacterie. Dit kan leiden tot ernstige BCG infectie in HIV geïnfecteerde kinderen en mensen met genetische afwijkingen in genen die betrokken zijn bij anti-TB immuun reacties. Daarom is de vraag naar een effectief TB vaccin groter dan ooit.

Subunit vaccins zijn niet-levende vaccins die bestaan uit immunogene componenten zoals eiwitten en/of peptiden en kunnen worden toegediend in combinatie met een adjuvant of via een viraal vector systeem. Er zijn verschillende TB subunit vaccins in ontwikkeling die bestaan uit *Mtb* eiwitten die door actief groeiende *Mtb* bacteriën tot expressie worden gebracht. Echter, *Mtb* kan ook in een minder actieve, sluimerende/ “dormant” staat verkeren. Men neemt aan dat deze sluimerende staat van *Mtb* aanwezig is in latent geïnfecteerde individuen. Deze sluimerende staat is een aanpassingsmechanisme dat *Mtb* gebruikt om te kunnen overleven in moeilijke, stressvolle situaties. *Mtb* bacteriën worden opgenomen door antigeen presenterende cellen zoals macrofagen en verblijven in een zogenoemd fagosoom, dat zorgt voor een voor de bacteriën onaangenaam milieu. Hier wordt *Mtb* onder andere bloot gesteld aan zuurstoftekort en een gebrek aan voedingsstoffen. Om deze omstandigheden toch te kunnen overleven schakelt *Mtb* over op een sluimerende, rustende fase die wordt gekenmerkt door een veranderd gen expressie patroon. Een gen cluster dat specifiek verhoogd tot expressie komt gedurende zuurstof depletie is het ‘dormancy regulon encoded’ (DosR) gen cluster. Verder blijkt dat er ook genen selectief tot expressie komen bij een tekort aan voedingsstoffen. Daarnaast is een bepaalde eiwit groep, ‘resuscitation promoting factors’ (Rpf), zeer waarschijnlijk betrokken bij het ontwaken of reacteren van sluimerende *Mtb*.

Dergelijke bovengenoemde eiwitten zijn dus betrokken bij specifieke fasen waar *Mtb* in kan verkeren. Het is nog niet volledig duidelijk welke andere genen en eiwitten de *Mtb* bacterie verder reguleert tijdens een *in vivo* infectie. Deze eiwitten zouden goede subunit vaccin kandidaten zijn, die zowel profylactisch als therapeutisch kunnen worden toegediend.

Nieuwe en relevante antigenen die mogelijk als TB subunit vaccin kandidaat kunnen dienen, moeten voldoen aan een aantal voorwaarden:

- i) Het antigen moet immunogeen zijn, dat wil zeggen: het eiwit zal efficiënt moeten worden herkend door specifieke T cellen in mycobacterie blootgestelde individuen.
- ii) Het eiwit moet *in vivo* tot expressie worden gebracht door *Mtb* in geïnfecteerde organen, zodat immuun cellen geïnduceerd tegen het antigen *Mtb* geïnfecteerde cellen ook daadwerkelijk kunnen herkennen.
- iii) Het antigen moet protectief zijn, dat wil zeggen: het eiwit moet in staat zijn een immuun respons op te wekken die de groei van *Mtb* kan remmen of *Mtb* kan doden.
- iv) De eiwit sequentie van het antigen moet onveranderd aanwezig zijn in alle stammen van *Mtb*, zodat een vaccin gebaseerd op dit antigeen effectief kan zijn tegen alle verschillende *Mtb* stammen.

Het onderzoek in dit proefschrift beschrijft de analyse van *Mtb* fase gerelateerde antigenen als mogelijke TB subunit vaccin kandidaten met specifieke focus op bovengenoemde factoren.

Dit proefschrift

‘Resuscitation promoting factors (Rpf)’s, zijn kleine eiwitten die zeer waarschijnlijk betrokken zijn bij het ontwaken van *Mtb* uit zijn sluimerende staat. Zij kunnen dus een belangrijke rol spelen in de ontwikkeling van TB. Het toepassen van deze antigenen in een TB vaccin zou dan kunnen leiden tot afweer responsen die reacterende *Mtb* meteen herkennen en bedwingen, en op die manier actieve TB ziekte helpen voorkomen. Deze antigenen zijn daarom mogelijk interessante TB vaccin kandidaten. In **hoofdstuk 2** is de immunogeniciteit van twee Rpf antigenen (Rv0867c en Rv2389c) bepaald en zijn tevens immunogene regio’s in deze eiwitten geïdentificeerd. Beide antigenen, vooral Rv2389c, werden herkend door witte bloedcellen van donoren die aan verschillende mycobacterium stammen waren blootgesteld (BCG gevaccineerde personen, latent geïnfecteerde personen (LTBI) en TB patiënten), zoals bepaald door de antigeen-specifieke productie van T helper 1 cytokines. De antigenen, maar nu vooral Rv0867c, bleken ook te worden herkend door de witte bloedcellen van een specifieke groep individuen die al tientallen jaren latent geïnfecteerd waren met *Mtb*, maar nooit TB ontwikkeld hadden (lt (long-term) LTBI). CD4⁺ en CD8⁺ T cellen van deze ltLTBIs reageerden op de antigenen en produceerden één of twee verschillende cytokines, wat betekent dat deze immuun cellen lang na *Mtb* blootstelling aanwezig

blijven. Ook bleken beide antigenen immunogene regio's te bevatten, zoals bepaald door middel van het gebruik van T cel lijnen. Al met al voldoen deze antigenen dus al aan één belangrijke vaccin voorwaarde.

'Dormancy regulon encoded genes' (DosR), zijn *Mtb* genen die sterk verhoogd worden afgeschreven wanneer de *Mtb* bacil wordt blootgesteld aan een tekort aan zuurstof. Sommige van de DosR eiwitten, afgeschreven van deze genen, worden vaker herkend door LTBI dan door TB patiënten. Het richten van een vaccin tegen deze antigenen zou dan ook mogelijk kunnen helpen bij het onder controle houden van de *Mtb* infectie. In **hoofdstuk 3** zijn de immunogeniciteit en immunogene regio's van drie verschillende DosR antigenen (Rv1733c, Rv2029c en Rv2031c) bepaald. Alle drie de antigenen werden herkend door dezelfde ltLTBI groep, en zowel CD4⁺ en CD8⁺ T cellen reageerden op de antigenen. De grootste populatie van T cellen produceerde één of twee verschillende cytokines. Verder bleken deze T cellen "uitvoerende geheugen cellen" (effector memory cells) of "uitvoerende cellen" (effector cells) te zijn. Dit betekent wederom dat ook immuun cellen specifiek voor deze DosR antigenen lange tijd na blootstelling aan *Mtb* aanwezig blijven. Alle drie antigenen bevatten ook immunogene regio's, specifiek herkend door CD4⁺ en/of CD8⁺ T cellen. Ook deze drie DosR antigenen blijken immunogeen en dus te voldoen aan enkele belangrijke, bovengenoemde subunit vaccin voorwaarden.

De boven genoemde *Mtb* fase gerelateerde antigenen werden alle ontdekt in *in vitro* studies welke de *in vivo* stress omstandigheden nabootsen. Een directe analyse van *Mtb* genen expressie tijdens een echte *in vivo* infectie is echter een krachtiger methode om relevante, hoog geëxprimeerde *Mtb* genen te identificeren omdat hierbij meerdere factoren tegelijk van invloed zijn zoals het effect van het immuun systeem. Daarbij is het wellicht ook mogelijk om belangrijke respons systemen te identificeren die *Mtb* gebruikt om *in vivo* te overleven. Wij veronderstelden dat *in vivo* geëxprimeerde genen tot de selectie van belangrijke nieuwe vaccin kandidaten zou kunnen leiden. In **hoofdstuk 4** is daarom een set van *in vivo* *Mtb* geëxprimeerde (IVE-TB) genen beschreven die zijn geïdentificeerd in de longen van *Mtb* geïnfecteerde muizen. Vier verschillende, genetische verwante muizen stammen zijn geanalyseerd. Deze stammen lieten een divers *Mtb* infectie patroon of spectrum van TB gevoeligheid zien. Een associatie kon worden gelegd tussen gen expressie en TB ziekte fenotypes. Ook werd de immunogeniciteit van een selectie van deze IVE-TB antigenen bepaald in mycobacterie blootgestelde individuen. Deze selectie bevat antigenen waarvan de eiwit sequenties geconserveerd zijn tussen de verschillende *Mtb* stammen. De IVE-TB antigenen werden goed herkend door *Mtb* blootgestelde individuen met een positieve IGRA en TST, terwijl weinig herkenning zichtbaar was in IGRA negatieve, TST positieve donoren of in negatieve controles. In TB patiënten werd ook herkenning gezien, zij het enigszins lager dan in de IGRA⁺TST⁺ donoren. Een aantal IVE-TB antigenen werden ook herkend door CD4⁺ en CD8⁺ T cellen van ltLTBI, dus immuun responsen tegen deze eiwitten waren wederom zeer langdurig aanwezig na infectie. Concluderend, de geteste IVE-TB antigenen zijn immunogeen, zijn geconserveerd en worden tot expressie gebracht *in vivo*, en voldoen hiermee aan drie van de gestelde vaccin voorwaarden.

Een belangrijke parameter voor een efficiënt TB vaccin kandidaat is de inductie van beschermende immuniteit. IVE-TB antigen Rv2034 uit hoofdstuk 4 werd verder bestudeerd als mogelijke vaccin kandidaat *in vivo* in HLA transgene muizen in **hoofdstuk 5**. Zoals beschreven in hoofdstuk 4 werd het antigen Rv2034 herkend door aan mycobacterie blootgestelde donoren maar niet door negatieve controles, wat betekent dat Rv2034 tot expressie wordt gebracht tijdens infectie én dat het immuun systeem in staat is om dit antigen te herkennen. Om Rv2034 als vaccin te gebruiken zal ook eerst de immunogeniciteit van het vaccin verder moeten worden bepaald. Hiertoe werden HLA transgene muizen gevaccineerd met Rv2034. Het bleek dat het antigen sterk herkend werd en een aantal HLA-DR3 specifieke epitopen bevatte. De geïnduceerde CD4⁺ T cellen produceerden voornamelijk een of twee verschillende soorten cytokines. Vervolgens werd aangetoond dat in Rv2034 gevaccineerde muizen het aantal *Mtb* bacteriën in de longen sterk gereduceerd was na intranasale infectie met de pathogene H37Rv *Mtb* stam. Dit is in overeenstemming met de expressie van Rv2034 *in vivo* in de long, na infectie. Verder bleek de Rv2034 eiwit sequentie geconserveerd. Rv2034 voldoet zo aan alle gestelde vaccin voorwaarden.

Om de functie van de Rv2034 T cellen nader te kunnen bestuderen hebben we een CD154 klonerings methode gebruikt om Rv2034 specifieke T cel klonen te genereren (**hoofdstuk 6**). CD4⁺, CD8⁺ en CD3⁺CD4⁺CD8⁻ T cel klonen konden worden gegenereerd. De specificiteit van een CD4⁺ Rv2034 T cel kloon was verder onderzocht en bleek specifiek voor peptide p81-100 welke gepresenteerd wordt via HLA-DR. Verder herkende de T cel kloon ook Rv2034 in *Mtb* lysaat, wat aantoont dat de T cel kloon niet alleen recombinant eiwit en synthetische peptiden, maar ook het natuurlijke eiwit geproduceerd door *Mtb* herkent. Daarbij bleek de T cel kloon T helper 1 en cytotoxische markers tot expressie te brengen. Om de mechanismen achter TB bescherming en infectie te ontrafelen is het van essentieel belang om de rol van (fase gerelateerde) antigeen specifieke CD4⁺ en CD8⁺ T cellen in dit proces te begrijpen. Het werk beschreven in hoofdstuk 6 kan daar een bijdrage aan leveren wat uiteindelijk zal leiden tot meer efficiënte TB vaccins en verbeterde behandelingsmethodes met als gevolg een afname van of zelfs het elimineren van TB.

Concluderend/toekomst perspectief

In dit proefschrift zijn verschillende *Mtb* fase gerelateerde antigenen geanalyseerd als mogelijke TB subunit vaccin kandidaten, met een specifieke focus op vier vooraf gestelde voorwaarden. Rpf en DosR eiwitten werden herkend door mycobacterie blootgestelde individuen en bleken immunogeen. De antigenen bevatten immunogene regio's welke mogelijk kunnen worden gebruikt in vaccin studies om verder het beschermende effect van deze antigenen te bestuderen. Een derde groep van antigenen, gevonden in dit proefschrift (IVE-TB antigenen) werden door *Mtb* tot expressie gebracht in de longen van muizen en bleken tevens immunogeen omdat ze werden herkend door *Mtb* blootgestelde individuen. Het IVE-TB antigen Rv2034 voldeed aan alle gestelde voorwaarden voor een effectieve vaccin kandidaat, dit zal verder moeten worden geoptimaliseerd en bestudeerd in andere *Mtb* modellen om de resultaten beschreven in dit proefschrift te valideren.

Om het effect van een vaccin te vergroten, zal het moeten bestaan uit meerdere antigenen welke in verschillende fasen van *Mtb* tot expressie komen. Op deze manier heeft het vaccin ook effect op de verschillende stadia, door het gebruik van deze fase gerelateerde antigenen en zal daarom ook toepasbaar zijn als profylactisch als ook therapeutisch vaccin. Tevens zullen immunogene epitopen aanwezig moeten zijn die via een breed scala aan HLA moleculen kunnen worden gepresenteerd. De toekomst zal uitwijzen of deze multi-fase vaccins inderdaad zullen kunnen leiden tot het verminderen van TB.

Curriculum Vitae

Susanna Commandeur, de auteur van dit proefschrift, werd geboren op 27 december 1984 te Kreileroord. In 2002 behaalde zij haar HAVO diploma aan de RSG Wiringherlant te Wieringerwerf. Het jaar daarop ontving zij haar propedeuse van de opleiding Sociaal Pedagogische Hulpverlening aan de Hogeschool van Amsterdam. Hetzelfde jaar startte zij, na succesvol afronden van het toelatingsexamen, aan de opleiding Biomedische Wetenschappen aan de Vrije Universiteit van Amsterdam. Tijdens de 3-jarige bachelor liep zij stage op de afdeling Medische Microbiologie en Infectiepreventie aan het VU medisch centrum onder begeleiding van prof. dr. Wilbert Bitter. Tijdens deze periode onderzocht zij welke genen van het ESX-5 cluster betrokken waren bij het secreteren van het eiwit PPE41. Zij vervolgde haar 2-jarige master aan dezelfde universiteit in de richting Celbiologie en Immunologie. Haar stage in het eerste masterjaar werd uitgevoerd op de afdeling Immunohematologie en Bloedtransfusie aan het Leids Universitair Medisch Centrum, onder supervisie van dr. Nigel Savage. Dit werk betrof een structuur-activiteitsrelatie studie naar gastheer-georiënteerde chemische stoffen welke mogelijk een bactericide effect induceren. Haar laatste masterstage liep zij op het departement Infectieziekten en Immunologie (afdeling virologie) aan de Diergeneeskunde faculteit van de Universiteit van Utrecht, onder begeleiding van dr. Berend Jan Bosch. Hier werkte zij aan de ontwikkeling van ‘virus-like particles’, een vaccin platform, welke Rift Valley fever virus eiwitten tot expressie brengen. Na het schrijven van haar scriptie behaalde zij haar master diploma in 2008 en halverwege dat jaar begon zij, onder begeleiding van prof. dr. T.H.M. Ottenhoff en dr. A. Geluk, haar promotie onderzoek dat is beschreven in dit proefschrift.

Sinds mei 2013 is Susanna werkzaam als post-doctoraal onderzoeker op de afdeling Medische Microbiologie en Infectiepreventie aan het VU medisch centrum waar ze haar werk en interesse in de bestrijding van *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* continueert.

List of publications

Susanna Commandeur, Karin Dijkman, Annemieke H. Friggen, Krista E. van Meijgaarden, Susan J.F. van den Eeden, Louis Wilson, Jolien J. van der Ploeg-van Schip, Kees L.M.C. Franken, Annemieke Geluk and Tom H.M. Ottenhoff. *Clonal analysis of the T-cell response to in vivo expressed Mycobacterium tuberculosis protein Rv2034, using a CD154 expression based T-cell cloning method.* **Submitted.**

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Susanna Commandeur, Krista E. van Meijgaarden, Corine Prins, Alexander V. Pichugin, Karin Dijkman, Annemieke H. Friggen, Kees L.M.C. Franken, Gregory Dolganov, Igor Kramnik, Gary K. Schoolnik, Fredrik Oftung, Gro Ellen Korsvold, Annemieke Geluk and Tom H.M. Ottenhoff. *An unbiased genome-wide Mycobacterium tuberculosis gene expression approach to discover antigens targeted by human T cells expressed during pulmonary infection.* **J Immunol.** 2013. Feb 15;190(4):1659-71.

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* These authors contributed equally to the study

Notes

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This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

